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Attitudes Expressed Toward Kindness by Children in 4-B

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ATTITUDES EXPRESSED TOWARD KINDNESS BY

CHILDREN IN 4-B

BY

ANNA A. McNICHOLS

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts
in
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1942

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PREFACE

Although there are elaborate investigations of children's moral concepts and moral conduct which have been reported within the last decade, it appears worthwhile to concentrate on a single essential virtue, kindness.

Although kindness has been discussed in earlier investigations, it has been treated in a very general way. No intensive study has been previously reported on this subject.

The writer wishes to express her gratitude to Dr. Austin G. Schmidt, S.J., and to Dr. Harold Wren of the Department of Education of Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois, for their direction. Grateful acknowledgement is also given to the teachers who have been very generous and cooperative in the work.

CHAPTER I

THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING KINDNESS TO CHILDREN

Kindness is the basic principle of morality which possesses the cohesive power of developing unity among individuals. This cohesive force tends toward adjusting their individual differences and toward building a strong feeling of understanding and good will among various groups. It is an active means of promoting character education. It is a tendency which exists to some degree in every individual. Hence, kindness inspires the individual to strive for the worthwhile value in citizenship.

If it be urged that kindness be defined, it may be defined as the giving of strength and courage to others. In other words, it is the disposition of the soul with its spiritual faculties - memory, intellect, and will -, the fact that man's distinction dwells in his inclination to wish well to others.

Genuine kindness is the giving of encouragement and strength in an intelligent manner in our social relationships. The individual receiving the necessary assistance can more easily adjust himself in the social scheme of life. Kindness of this type promotes harmonious relationships in a social group. So kindness, to be genuine, must be built on a faith which grows and develops to a greater height of perfection.

God Commands It

The striving for perfection is illustrated in the New Testament. An example is given in the passage in which a doctor of the law came to Jesus and asked: "Master, which is the great commandment in the law?" And the Son of God answered: "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God . . . and thy neighbor." (Matt. XXII. 37,39). Thus did the Master intone the canticle of canticles of holy love; and the best among His disciples have continued the sacred song through all the centuries. Peter exhorted the early Christians: "Before all things have a constant mutual charity among yourselves." (I. Pet. IV, 8) (97:2)

The great commandment speaks of the love of God and our neighbor. The purpose of this thesis is to treat only the second part: love or kindness to our neighbor or associate. God's greatest command is to love Himself and to love our neighbor or associate who is daily visible in our activities. The visible presence of our fellowmen presents a continuous opportunity for exercising the trait of kindness.

Man Prizes Kindness

Man prizes kindness, which is one of the noblest and fairest of the virtues. The Abbot Wohrmuller has written that even Nietzsche declared that one should learn to love and to be kind in one's youth; and that when training or chance gives us no opportunity to practice these sentiments, our soul becomes barren and incapable even of understanding these tender emotions of kindly natures (ibid., 240).

Every child needs to be given continuous opportunities to acquire the

trait of kindness because the need is imperative in the individual's social relationship.

Kind Thoughts

In teaching children the importance of kindness, the powerful force of kind thoughts must be recognized. Thought is a force which is found at the beginning of each deliberate action. If the child strives to cultivate kind thoughts, his actions will be naturally kind. The kind thought, through practice, will become a habit. Thoughts are great forces which generate the power in every significant event of historical interest; many mighty undertakings have developed from the simple force of kindly thoughts.

The need of cherishing kindly thoughts and feelings is a great one, but not an easy one to fulfill. Every beginning is arduous, even the beginning of charity and of charitable thought. A loving thought is, for the most part, more difficult than a seemingly kind deed or word, which, in reality, may be devoid of all sincerity. To think lovingly is an invisible, silent activity of the soul demanding charity of thought. It is often very difficult, as, for instance, when we have suffered an injury, not to be perturbed. It is not easy, in fact, to keep firmly and clearly to supernatural principles in our daily conduct. Great will-power is required if the thoughts of hatred, selfishness, and mistrust that rush in upon us are to be mastered and turned into gracious and kindly thoughts (ibid.; 16).

Yet, the cultivation of kindly thoughts precedes the kind act. The loving thought by which the individual is now influenced motivates the deeds which he will achieve in the future. A kind deed reflects the thought

that inspired the performance of the action. Through the accumulation of kindly thoughts within himself, each individual can strive to make his environment better. The gentle thoughts of the individual deepen and strengthen the noble sentiments of citizenship that will guide his entire life.

Kind Words

Thus the cohesive power of kindness applies with a supplementary force to kind words. They are one of the powerful means of encouraging good citizenship. They are an effective guide when they are motivated by love. Gentle words inspire the child to strive for harmonious relationship with his associates.

The power of a good word is such as to make it in some way akin to Him Who, in His divine omnipotence, is both the Eternal Word and the great, creative and eternal fact. (ibid.; 21).

Kind Actions

Genuine kindness is not content with gentle words and, like every effective force, it expresses itself in action. Even the little child strives to perform acts of kindness; and the genius wants to better conditions of his fellowmen. The greatest of all forces, kindness, is eager to give strength and encouragement to others. Faber says:

Now, every one of those acts of kindness has doubtless done us a certain amount of spiritual good. If they did not make us better at the time, they prepared the way for our becoming better, or they sowed a seed of future goodness, and made an impression which we never suspected, and yet which was ineffaceable. (29:89)

Early History of Moral Education

McKosn, in his Character Education, has said:

The first record we have of moral education is that contained in the story of the Garden of Eden ... All through the Old Testament, as well as in the Talmud, the Koran, and Sayings of Confucius, the teachings of Aristotle, Socrates, Plato, and other early educational thinkers, and other writings and writers of more or less antiquity, there are hundreds of similar illustrations of acts performed, which sometimes resulted in reward and sometimes resulted in punishment. "Most of these stressed man's relations with his fellows." With the advent of the Christian era, man's relationship with a single superior Being has been increasingly emphasized, of course, through the teachings of Jesus and His disciples. The incidents are parables which were generalized and solidified to form early counterparts of our modern social and ethical standards. (60:72)

Character education is paramount in its position in educational circles. It is assuming a position of great international concern. This type of education is uppermost in the minds of most educators because it is concerned with a basic feature of the welfare of children. Its increasing importance is voiced by public opinion and is demanding the attention of the various significant educational institutions throughout the nation.

Character education possesses the sanction of the United States Constitution and is upheld by the Ordinance of 1787. In the Preamble of the Constitution, we find that the six objects are: a more perfect union; justice; domestic tranquility; the common defense; general welfare; and the preservation to posterity of the blessings of liberty. The Ordinance of 1787 states that "religion, morality and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools, and the means of education, shall forever be encouraged."

An article in Religious Education in 1928 said:

A primary index of the type and trend of the movement is found in the great bulk of literature dealing with character and personality development that has sprung out of the matrix of the movement during the last five years. A.A. Roback, in A Bibliography of Character and Personality, lists 3,238 references. This and other such bibliographies as A Bibliography of Analysis and Measurement of Human Personality up to 1926, by Grace E. Manson, and A Bibliography of Bibliographies on Character Education, by Monroe and Asher, indicate the bulk of literature dealing directly with the subject. We mention only three out of a larger number of bibliographies. Nor do we include an even greater literature outside the generally accepted field of religion and character education, that deals directly or by implication with that subject. (103:240)

In lists of this type we find that the terms personality and character are used interchangeably. In general the definition of personality is "the sum total of all the biological, innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites, and instincts of the individual and the acquired dispositions and tendencies." (74:532) It is also defined as "the composite of the individual's tendencies to behavior including mental as well as physical activity." (68:49)

The word character implies "certain areas of personality, or certain behavior tendencies, which seem to be especially significant for human living." (ibid.) The term character in its fullest meaning is "a life governed by principles; and, therefore, it comprehends all life so far as it can be dominated by principles." (47:158)

As character education is so vital to the child's welfare, it is necessary to begin with some trait that he can understand, experience, practice, and appreciate in his daily life. One of the traits which definitely possesses these qualifications is kindness. Everywhere there are

situations which give opportunities to the child to realize the need of this trait. Kindness enters his home, school, and recreational activities. In the course of his daily experiences he has sufficient opportunity to examine and experience the fruits of kindness.

The field of character education presents various plans of systematic procedures. All programs are intended to develop desirable and wholesome social adjustments for the pupil in his human relations.

The few scientific research projects which are available are not definite in regard to the values of the various techniques. These projects are factors, however, in helping the educators to reach a tentative appraisal of some of the popular techniques. The various procedures may be classified into four types of activities. The first group whose activities are governed by an organization which is independent of the school or church guidance, requires loyalty of the members. It includes Camp Fire Girls, Boy Scouts, and Girl Scouts. The second class of techniques which are not under the school supervision possesses glamorous and flexible procedures which may be used in school activities. Opportunities of this nature are found in the Knighthood of Youth, the Pathfinders, and the Junior Red Cross. The third type is found in the varied programs of the school. The fourth class is devoted to character-forming experiences and is interested in the correct principles of economics. This group, which works on democratic principles, comprises the Junior Achievement, the 4-H Clubs, National Recreation Association, and the military training which is promoted by the War Department.

The Scouts' Organization

The paramount technique of the Scouts' organizations is the creation of an attitude in the boy or girl toward worthy and essential traits which are given suitable practice until they are habits of conduct. It is the underlying principle which governs the ideals, activities, and interests of the Camp Fire Girls of America.

The Boy Scouts' organization, which requires kindness as one of its principles, is of great moral significance in the field of citizenship. It aims to develop worthy social living. It provides concrete expression for the social virtues. Particularly, this is achieved through the exercise and the satisfaction of the natural tendency toward adventure and fellowship. The organization strives to prepare the youth for worthy citizenship through the wise guidance of the inherent interest of the boys.

The important features of the Boy Scout Movement is its appeal to the daily thought and action of the boy. The impulses of the boy are activated and encouraged so that he will be true to his ideals. It provides for the members worthy projects which can be achieved under reasonable conditions. Thus, the daily duties of the Scouts are frequently made attractive by an occasional stimulating activity.

The Boy Scouts aim to promote worthwhile and joyous living through the healthy expression of the natural tendencies. They strive to practice and make attractive the laws of morality which produce good citizenship. A procedure which develops in the boys the realization that the person of good character is also a good citizen, is capable of producing far-reaching results.

Some of the studies endeavor to prove the value of independent societies. The Voelker's study (96) attempts to test the effect of Scouting in the matter of trustworthiness. The conclusion of the study is that Scout training helps the average boy to develop trustworthiness. Others do not accept Voelker's results, and some question his statistical techniques. Dr. Fairchild's research (30) upholds the belief that the active Scouts present a higher level of character development than non-Scouts.

Cooperating Societies

One of the outstanding organizations whose major features may be used in school activities, is the Junior Red Cross, which advocates kindness on a world-wide basis. The program is entirely for the betterment of others. Whenever a need is found, the organization attempts to meet it graciously and kindly. Though the organization fits easily into any school program, it does not seek any recognition for its character-developing activities.

The Knighthood of Youth Plan

The purpose of the organization, the Knighthood of Youth, is to develop the ability to distinguish between right and wrong. It aims to create the desire to do right and the habit of doing right in the daily activities of life. The plan, which is now sponsored by the National Child Welfare Association, continually modifies its program to meet the individual needs of the various groups.

The power of the Knighthood of Youth is the flexible part of the program of adventures which encourages the necessary and worthwhile traits of character in the various groups. It is a technique for developing class

unity, which eventually leads to better citizenship. The adventures of the Knights consist of destroying dragons, which are bad habits. Every successful adventure gives new power to each Knight to perform his tasks, which are the stones for the castle. The Knight receives recognition for the completion of certain duties.

Pathfinders of America

Another organization of this group is the Pathfinders of America, whose course is designed for students from the fourth grade through high school.

This institution mirrors the belief of its founder, J.F.Wright, that character education is . . . a special subject with special teachers just the same as any other school subject. In general, the plan consists of a basic talk by one of the trained teachers on such topics as, "Human Engineering," "Be Faithful to Yourself," "Cause and Effect," and "Educated versus Graduated." (60:77)

Two weeks after each of these talks there follows a club meeting at which the students examine and apply the points which have been stressed in the basic talk.

Each pupil writes his own reaction in the form of a letter to the instructor, who uses this in adapting his work to the group. (ibid.)

A certain group of programs in the field of character education has been constructed by those outside the school system for the educators. From this group, we shall briefly refer to four: The Iowa Plan; the Five Point Plan; the School Republic; and the Plan of the Self-Government Committee.

The Iowa Plan

In the competition conducted under the supervision of the Character Education Institute, among the various state committees, in order to give recognition for the best public school method for character education and to award a prize of \$20,000 for it, the winning committee was from Iowa. The Iowa plan emphasizes definite objectives and general principles. The following paragraph gives the gist of it:

All worth-while games, like the game of living, are difficult to learn. The sign of mastery is joy in the performance. Cultivate habits of living out gracefully the clean and kindly life. The good character is full of harmony within and without, like the harmony of music. The good in character is like the good in manner, but more. Transform sheer duty into an impelling and inviting sense of beauty. (17:2)

Five Point Plan

In 1916 a Morality Codes Competition was held by the Character Education Institution offering an anonymous prize of \$5,000 for the best formulation of foundational conduct ideals. The winner was W.N.Hutchins, now President of Berea College. This Code, with some modifications, had been widely adopted as the core of character education plans fostered by school systems. Indeed, it was regarded as so basic to all character education that the Character Education Institution itself incorporated it in a comprehensive proposal issued under the title, the Five Point Plan. (38:69)

The Five Point Plan, whose patriotic motive is citizenship, is composed of five major emphases. Moral leadership, which receives twenty percent emphasis, is developed in the citizens' clubs which furnish active pupil participation; ten percent is devoted to the use of the Hutchins' code; character projects (habits), which are based upon kindness, service, courtesy, etc., are assigned thirty percent; thirty percent is allowed for

guidance; and character graph and school records, which rate the social development of Uncle Sam's Boys and Girls, are allowed ten percent. An interesting feature of the plan is the earning of a citizenship badge. On graduation from the elementary, the children may keep the badge on the taking of the loyalty pledge.

The School Republic

The School Republic was organized by Wilson L. Gill for developing the fundamental idea of self-government in a school in the lower east side of New York. As organized, each class-room is a city and elects a mayor and other necessary officers of a municipal government. An officer is responsible for the duties and rights of his office. The school is united into a National Republic which is modeled after the United States Government. The entire student body represents Congress. The teacher possesses the veto power on city action and the principal enjoys a similar right over the national body.

Plan of the Self-Government Committee

The members of the Self-Government Committee, through their collection of school procedures, have interested themselves in the evaluation of the various techniques. They have induced teachers and principals to examine their methods. The Committee offers some practical advice in the art of pupil self-government.

The Committee, also, contends that self-government is a training for worthy citizenship in all its aspects. It offers no definite form of procedure because different situations are governed by different factors.

One of the best plans is the one which encourages fair play and noble ideals through the attitudes and actions of the authorities in the school.

State Techniques

The growing need of character education has aroused the interest of all the thinkers who are interested in citizenship. It appears that it is necessary for an individual to assume the responsibility and prepare himself or herself for the work of reconstruction and integration that has yet to be accomplished before any system will approach conditions normal for the encouragement of growth in well-organized character. (ibid.:80)

The State of Utah uses the existing curriculum to introduce the specific ideals and habits which will aid the child. These are selected to benefit the student in his social relationship. These ideals and habits are to be gained through practice, discussion, and the arousing of a favorable regard for their acquisition.

The Nebraska Plan consists of a series of tracts which are within the experiences of the child. It strives to develop an emotional liking for the ideal and arranges for sufficient practice for the student. The plan recognizes the need of understanding the individual child, and it prepares adequate measures to benefit the student.

Rhode Island's Character Education Through Kindness

In the State of Rhode Island, an attempt has been made to develop worthy citizens. The Commissioner of Education, Walter E. Ranger, has produced a comprehensive outline: Character Education Through Kindness.

Kindness has been selected because each individual needs it to progress in his environment. In fact, it is proposed because it is a vital factor in an individual of character. The outline states:

Friendliness is fundamental in social character. Man's greatest gift to man is friendship, with its fellowship of sincere thought and true affection. Sympathy is at the heart of a worthy social life. Good will is the essence of social virtues. Kindness is the beginning of justice and the soul of mercy.

Humanity and friendship are fundamental in civic character. Regard for all men is the spirit of the Declaration of Independence and of our national Constitution. Kindness is an ideal of American government. Without it, general welfare and common good are meaningless terms. Our civic organizations of popular government cannot endure unless held by ties of human brotherhood. (75:2)

City Plans

The plans of the cities of Boston, Los Angeles, and Denver will be briefly considered.

The City of Boston recognizes the need and value of social relationship. The need for social relationship can be observed in a child who seeks the companionship of other children. This seeking for companions is natural and normal. Thorndike says:

Man responds to the absence of human beings by discomfort and to their presence by a positive satisfaction. (92:29)

McDougall states that the satisfaction of being a member of a crowd is greater than the cause or events which attracts the crowd.

In civilized communities we see the evidence of the cooperation of this [social] instinct on every hand. For all but a few exceptional and generally highly cultivated persons, the one essential condition of the recreation is being one of the crowd. The normal daily reaction of the population of our towns is to get out in

evening and walk up and down the streets in which the throng is the densest, - the Strand, Oxford Street, or the Old Kent Road; and the smallest occasion, a foreign prince driving to a railway station or to the Lord Mayor's Show, will line the streets for hours with many thousands whose interest in the Prince or the Show alone would hardly lead them to take a dozen steps out of the way. (58:89)

The Boston Plan defines character as "that which causes a life to be dominated by principle rather than by mere impulse or circumstance." And it says that the principles "govern attitudes and actions when ideals have been stamped into the mind in some concrete form." (38:84)

The plan aims to meet the social needs of the children. It is one of the best character-development curricula that have been developed by individual school systems. It has been working efficiently in Boston under Superintendent Burke since 1924. The plan, which includes kindness as an essential factor, is based on the Hutchins Code, and it permits fifteen minutes daily for presentation and discussion of each trait. The curriculum provides a new trait for each month. The procedure is of particular interest because all of the interested leaders of Boston have been given the opportunity of compiling and approving the project.

The citizens of Boston have accepted the Hutchins' ideals because they are necessary for worthy citizenship. Hutchins, in developing his famous Code, which is founded on the great basic virtue of unselfishness, sanctions the belief of St. Thomas Aquinas. The Hutchins Code upholds the following statement of St. Thomas:

There is a well-ordered self-love, due and natural, whereby a man wishes for himself the good that befits him; but the love that is set down as a cause of sin is an inordinate selfish love, leading to a contempt of God. (79: I, 239-240)

The principles of Hutchins' Children's Morality Code have been the selection of the Character Education Institution since 1916, because they are an outstanding contribution in the field of character education. The ideals are found in many codes, plans, and programs throughout the country.

The people of Boston offer a sincere objective. It is the following: "Public education is a people's deliberate effort to form a nobler race of men." This objective gives the master key to the aim of the city's "Citizenship." "Narrowly conceived [citizenship] concerns only political rights, duties and obligations. Broadly considered it includes rights, duties, obligations in all the social relations of an individual." (109:241)

Los Angeles

The school activities in Los Angeles are based on the children's experiences in various age groups. An example of this is found in Dearborn's "What Does Honesty Mean to the Third and Fourth Grade Children?" In this survey of children's ideas of honesty, many individual differences in attitudes and abilities are evident. This study is followed by a series of stories from actual situations which were written by the fifth grade pupils. In the study, the stories were not completed. This gave the child an opportunity to express his own reactions. (38:90)

The discussion of the story . . . and the answer to the question, "How do we remember to tell truth?" brought out much evidence that third and fourth grade children definitely know when they do not tell the truth Some children said that they remembered to tell the truth through fear of results, some because they would be rewarded, but the majority said they remembered through exercising some form of will power, as "I put it on my mind." (123:210)

From this study it is evident that lying is a serious fault in the child's world. He comprehends rather well the elements that are present in situations in which he lies. In the cases of cheating, stealing, withholding confessions, these elements are too complex for complete mastery.

The important features of the Los Angeles Plan are the questions that are found in the outline. These queries strive to encourage reasons for good conduct. They develop an awareness of the consequences of our conduct.

What children need and crave is contact with reality, - reality in human conduct as well as in objects and tools and the conduct of animals (38:92)

Denver Plan

Character education is correlated with social science in Denver. This method is indicated in the following statement from the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association:

Social science - the science of getting along with people - is coming to be recognized as an essential part of every child's education. On our ability to get along with other people, both at work and at play, rest the very foundations of the structures essential to an advancing civilization. . . . Concrete experience and illustrations must replace general formulae if the child is to know how the great human needs are satisfied and is to feel the need for government, morality, and that type of behavior which makes it possible for us to live as social beings. (66:323)

Similarities are found in the basic principle of the Denver Plan and the theme of the Committee on Social Studies. The latter places stress on experiences which are:

. . . intelligently directed toward social ends. The contrasts lie largely in the source of information for the guidance of experience. Social science finds these sources in current life and in the story of how people have struggled toward culture and civilization. Character

education finds its sources in the ideals and standards that have emerged in this struggle. The one deals primarily with skills and attitudes. The other expresses its purposes in terms of traits and ideals. (38:93)

The program of guidance begins in first grade with an appreciation of home life. It gradually expands in the following grades toward a better understanding of the basic economic operations of life. Thus is produced an appreciation which is a contributing factor to a worthy citizenship, because it stresses our obligations to our fellowmen.

Means for Improving the General Environment of Children

One of the great character-forming experiences which promote and contribute to the health, safety, and happiness in many communities is the National Recreation Association. This organization studies the recreational needs of a given community and temporarily provides capable leaders, who inaugurate the needed program. The value of the program is recognized in a short time by the members of the community who are interested in the welfare of the children. The interested citizens, through their local officials, provide the equipment for the maintenance of the program.

The Association endeavors to develop kindness, fair-play, and leadership in recreation. It mentions that these qualities are required for advancing the social status of a given area. Through the promotion of this type of program, an efficient integration of the recreational possibilities of the community is achieved. The activities include the individual needs of every age-group of the community.

There is also a project for the developing of public-spirited and useful citizens in rural affairs. This program is known as the 4-H Club work,

which is an integral part of the cooperative extension project of the Department of Agriculture, and the Land Grant College. The subjects are aided by the General Education Board, and by several local agencies that are interested in improving the home and social life of agricultural areas.

The objectives of this organization, which is for boys and girls, are: to aid them to recognize the possibilities of rural life; to develop a kindly, cooperative attitude toward reasonable action in the marketing of produce; the practical application of the methods of health for developing better citizens; and the realization of the nobility and service in soil conservation.

All activities of the group are a reflection of the educational possibilities which are contained in the local agricultural area. Often an entire group which is interested in a local possibility, unites and produces a single project for a State Fair demonstration or exhibit. In the group, a member may enter an individual contribution which is of local or state value and thereby advance the progress of the work of the Club.

The importance of the activities are twofold. In the first place, they are real life processes of the rural communities. The projects are of use to the section, such as the prize acre of corn which furnished the seed for the following year. They motivate the children to continue to improve their procedure in their farm work.

Character is for these children in very truth a way of living. The ideals and high standards which they are learning are working ideals and standards for their own activities (ibid.:109)

The second important fact is that these activities develop the basic activity of the home area of these children. The activities are also a primary interest to the parents and other mature members of the community.

An organization that is interested in the welfare of city children is the Junior Achievement, which owes its origin to a few industrialists.

[It] organizes a stock company and it conducts a real commercial enterprise in accordance with established business principles and procedures. (53:368)

This organization promotes various types of handiwork which are valuable for boys and girls in the teens. The handicraft includes the manual and household arts.

One delightful advantage of this organization is that there are no capital-labor conflicts. No one individual is allowed to control the stock. (ibid.)

Character education of youth has attracted the attention of the War Department through its military training in the school. The Military Training Manual No. 2000-25, "Citizenship," states:

It is the mission of these courses to specially emphasize the moral aspects of citizenship - to build up home discipline, reverence for religion, and respect for constituted authority.

It is, therefore, essential that the training of these young men embody with their instruction in military science, at least a basic course in the science of government and the privileges, duties, and responsibilities of the individual citizen. (38:113)

Summary

Many social procedures are adjusted to the needs of society:

The basic principles of morality, as represented by such general qualities as kindness, thoughtfulness, sincerity, honesty, courage, and dependability, have not

changed since time began, but the methods and the means through which and by which they are expressed have changed many, many times, and will continue to change as long as civilization continues to develop. (60:187)

Theorists' Conception of Character

Beneath the program of character education there are many varying conceptions of the nature of character. Some procedures have been questioned. Keen observation and the thoughtful applying of principles have given more to the theory of character than has any scientific procedure. Many feel that the scientific technique is interested only in abstractions and conclusions.

Others claim that science will prove a beneficial friend to the educator. They base their assumption on the past performances of the scientist in the fields of medicine and industry. They claim that science offers a necessary procedure in the program of character education. Thus, if the educator accepts the scientists' technique, he may discover a progressive method for developing the worthwhile citizen.

The current theories of character are interwoven, and an accurate separation is necessary. The five-fold division of Hartshorne (38) is practical; and a brief discussion of the various theories follows:

The Trait Theory:

When the program of character education is based on the trait theories, the procedure is to cultivate a series of virtues which are essential in a good citizen. This is exhibited in the Hutchins Code, the Boston Plan, and the Scout laws. The plan generally allows a month to develop a given virtue. In following the trait theory, the program which is found in Cabot's

Ethics of Children (16) maintains that it takes one year for the subject's appreciation and realization of the value of each virtue. The aim of this technique is to develop within the individual the traits which every good citizen needs.

Some theorists advance the view that the natural tendency of the individual may produce a certain type of behavior because of existing pre-arranged patterns. It is compared to the formation of a crystal which is always in keeping with its chemical composition. (38)

The overt behavior exhibits or expresses something already "there," predetermined by the nature of its parts, like the potential pattern of the crystal or the type form of a tree. Others have regarded the trait as a kind of muscle which could be developed by exercise. Kind action exercises the virtue of kindness, which grows in consequence. Others have regarded traits as groups of acts which are merely classified by the observer as belonging together just as one might classify specimens according to arbitrary points of likeness. Time, honesty consists in a series of acts which are alike in some respect from the standpoint of the observer. (ibid.:127)

Charters' theory is that character is developed through conduct and action. A kind act must be specific and never abstract. The viewpoint of Charters influences many of the leading elementary and secondary educational leaders in America. It is also approved by a large per cent of those who work in the field of character education in America.

The theory of Charters is as follows:

There is a strong tendency among text-book writers, lecturers and theorists in moral education to treat the development of character on an abstract and general level. Such a tendency contradicts the obvious ethical fact that character grows through conduct and action, and the obvious psychological fact that conduct and action are specific and not abstract. The great general principles of conduct are translated into specific forms of conduct through the situa-

tion. Moral instruction is largely wasted except as it is made concrete through special application to individual problems. These problems should be selected to typify great classes and fields of experience and the resulting trait actions should be worked out in adequate detail. Principles are essential, but can be used only as they are made concrete by vivid and intimate personal experience.

After the desire for ideals has been aroused when a knowledge of principles of conduct has been acquired, after a wide experience with life has been accumulated and after problems of behavior are clearly defined, character and personality can be influenced only when, and in so far as detailed plans for meeting specific situations are developed and carried over into conduct. To omit the final detailed plans largely nullifies the labor of the teacher. The concrete situation is the matrix in which desire and knowledge develop into nascent character. If there is no matrix, there can be no development. (118:753)

The trait or virtue of itself does not develop a virtuous individual, but only the ethical aim of his life. The virtue acts as an instrument which empowers the possessor to fulfill his ambitions, and the fulfillment of them indicates his type of character. Thus, kindness because of its excellent effect upon the possessor in his dealing with others, is a necessary good trait for every good citizen.

Habits are virtues according as they set one on his way. They have no independent ethical status of their own, no inherent quality which, apart from the achievements, makes them moral in themselves. Thrift during normal times is generally considered a virtue, but during a depression, according to some economists, it may be a vice. It is good when it brings good in its wake. It is bad when the consequences of practicing it are bad. Abstemiousness in general is nonsense. What makes abstemious behavior virtuous is the intelligence with which we select what may hurt us or benefit us. How fruitless is the effort to disentangle courage or even self-sacrifice from their setting, and claim from their abstracted shadows the passionate allegiance which can be given only to concrete causes! The courage of the greedy merchant who pursues his ruthless conquest of his competitors is psychologically the same as the courage of the proverbial mother defending herself and her offspring from their enemies, but ethically it is dif-

ferent, and the difference lies not in the overcoming of fear, but in the motives and circumstances which led up to the fear - upon the primary fears out of which the secondary fears are created. Did the merchant not fear the loss of his goods he would not get himself into a position where he might need to overcome his fear of those who oppose him in his pursuit of security and riches. If the mother did not fear harm to her child, she would have no occasion to defend it against a dangerous antagonist. Yet who would say that the fear of loss of unneeded goods was of the same significance as fear of harm to a child? The courage in overcoming the secondary fears is based entirely on the presence of primary fears and it is these which determine the ethical significance of the overt, secondary courage. There is no need to cultivate courage in general, even supposing we could. Neither do we need to cultivate values, from which such instruments as courage derive their ethical meaning, and by which alone fear can be ethically overcome. (38:131-132)

Many question the actual concrete expression in conduct of virtues or traits as such. But Charters writes:

In the field of character, a trait may be defined as a type reaction. The trait of courage indicates the fact that the individual who possesses this quality is likely to react according to type in a wide variety of situations. If he does, then we say that he possesses the trait under consideration. (18:33)

Many writers claim that evidence of a given quality is found in verbal assent. A trait which is exhibited may influence similar acts. Therefore, when one knows the meaning of honesty, he will strive to be honest. One may expect the individual through this striving to act in an honest manner in his daily experiences. However:

A number of studies have cast doubt upon this commonly held view. In an extended investigation of types of behavior having ethical similarities, the Character Education Enquiry found that specific instances were correlated so slightly as to allow of no essential binding ethical core, such as a trait. As a result of whatever moral teaching they have had, school children in grades V to VIII, at least, do not exhibit any general consistency of behavior.

Realizing, however, that the knowledge represented in test scores was general, the Inquiry attempted to work out correspondence between knowledge of specific acts and the acts themselves, but with no better luck than in the case of general knowledge. Nor when the attempt was made, in an experiment, to produce definite knowledge of the nature of honesty, by means of story and discussion, was it found that teaching resulted in any differences in conduct. On the other hand, three lessons in co-operation, which led up to definite class action regarding what would be the proper relation of individual needs to class needs, produced at least a temporary effect on conduct. (38:134-135)

The ideal or trait which is essential to the individual must have an appeal to a felt need of the individual. The ideal of itself must arouse a desire to be acquired in the person who needs it. In the process of acquiring the virtue, proper guidance is essential. For the attainment of the trait, such as kindness, concrete examples must be carefully provided. When the procedure is understood, there must be sufficient practice of kindly acts to encourage and train the students. As a result of this process, the trait of kindness will be so integrated that the individual's actions will be governed by kindly principles.

The trait theory of character acknowledges that there is an organizing factor which motivates our actions. It maintains that this systematic relation is compatible with a standard, as in the case of honesty. This factor is to some extent independent of the acts which announce its presence. The trait theory as found in several character-education procedures does not recognize the idea that conduct is a specific function. It seeks instead for something that gives the subtle cause of harmonious conduct.

Unlike the greater number of the trait theories, the habit theory starts and finishes with conduct. It adheres to the principle that conduct

is specific and is the result of the laws of learning. Between certain acts and situations, connections are developed either through a process of "conditioning" and "reconditioning," or by "partial responses" and "associative shifting." When consistency is recognized, it is an indication of common factors in the situation. The "trait" lies as much in the situation as in the reacting individual. (ibid.: 145-46)

The Theory of a Collection of Habits

In the habit theory which Symonds (88) upholds, it is claimed that character is an individual's entire muscular and verbal responses that are essential for his satisfaction.

Symonds' principle of organization is known as the contact. He holds that one reacts to the concept "horse" in several situations which contain the elements that suggest the idea of a horse. It follows analagously from this principle that an individual may react kindly when confronted with certain situations. Thus, kind acts will become a habit, and they require repetition and satisfaction for their development.

One study compares Symonds' theory to Charters':

From the standpoint of a theory of character the chief difference between, say, Charters and Symonds seems to be in what constitutes the theoretical unit of moral conduct. To one it is the trait. To the other, it is the contact. Both recognize the basic specificity of situation responses. Neither provides any thorough-going treatment of how such units are themselves organized into the totality which constitutes the individual. Charters proposes that there must be moral principles as well as traits to guide life. Symonds apparently either is not concerned with a total self or relies on the discovery of some subtle element common to all situations and some appropriate total contact, both sufficiently general to serve as the core of an integrated personality. At least he leaves this open as a possibility. (38:148)

The hierarchy theory holds that specific habits are necessary for greater social adjustment. These specific habits comprise a unit of sufficient size to function properly in a given field of achievement. When mastering a type of activity, at first very easy, the individual acquires primary motor patterns. Later more complex patterns are needed. As the activity progresses the performer is conscious only of performing his task.

Therefore, the individual who acts in a routine fashion develops a routine character. All problems are adjusted automatically to the needs of his life. The habits that contribute to the perfect adjustment of his daily life, form the individual's character. All habits are so mastered that at any given period or event in his life, one could predict the reaction.

The individual lives in a constantly changing world. The habits that are very highly mechanized may impede his progress, because of the existing social conditions. Yet, the concept of an unchanging world does not act as a motivating challenge which possesses the spontaneity and fresh insight that is essential for high character. It does not offer a reason for progressing. Thus the existing factors in all social environment indicate that the hierarchy theory is not a reasonable theory of character. It is the same type of failure that all purely mechanistic theories are.

When one's habits become stereotyped, he is unable to adjust himself to new experiences. However, the nervous system helps one to adjust himself, in the light of past experiences. The nervous system, which is largely guided by the brain, presents unlimited new possibilities in every unfamiliar situation. Every problem brings new views. In this sense character means the ability to master every new experience which it is necessary for an

individual to assimilate. In other words, a man of character is one who in every situation adjusts matters in accordance with his better judgment.

Dewey (24) recognizes character as the interpenetration of habits:

If each habit existed in an insulated compartment and operated without affecting or being affected by others, character would not exist. . . . But since environments overlap, since situations are continuous and those remote from one another contain like elements, a continuous modification of habits by one another is constantly going on. (ibid.:38)

Pattern Theories

- The pattern theories such as Dewey holds are functional. The individual naturally acquires those habits which are useful for his social and physical adjustment in his environment. The process of social adjustment is continuous as the person builds the new patterns which are essential for every new achievement. As new adjustments are needed, the habits are organized anew, in order to master the situation. The result is the progressive integration of the individual in his social environment.

According to Shand (82), the basic organization of human nature is the dominant sentiment. A sentiment usually controls the individual's actions and other sentiments are merely contributing elements to the master sentiment. Everything that is an essential factor in the development of the recognized virtue, receives the attention of the individual. That sentiment which does not adjust itself to existing conditions, is rejected. A trait which is classified as a dominant sentiment is surrounded by many kindred sentiments.

While in the first freshness of a sentiment its virtues often develop in this spontaneous way, -- as, for instance, the qualities of generosity, gentleness, kindness, and sincerity, in love and friendship; and in the sentiments for truth and art, the qualities of industry and perseverance, -- yet a little later these qualities are often checked; and effort and reflection succeed to the first stage of spontaneous growth. (ibid.:111)

To realize its ideals, the sentiment needs subordinate emotions, and it seeks to acquire them. The secondary emotions generally include some primary emotions, such as admiration or self-reproach. As one individual considers the great work of others, he is inspired to persevere. Another reads poetry and aspires to truth and purity. Many select an ideal which is chosen by the world in general. Some are urged to practice an ideal which is adapted to their individuality. As the emotions arouse the individuals to seek for them, if they are neglected, the seekers are filled with self-reproach. Shand writes:

As the sentiments create their own duties and punish us with self-reproach for neglect of them, so anyone who has fulfilled his under-difficulties which have strained his endurance feels within himself, though all the world be ignorant of the fact, that secret and humble self-approval is the reward of faithful service. (ibid.:115)

He also says:

. . . And the science of character will deal with the Intellect as with the Will. It will regard the one no more than the other as an independent existence; but as organized in and subserving the system of some impulse, emotion, or sentiment. The powers of the intellect, like those of the will, are partly innate, partly acquired; but they will only be elicited in one or other of these systems, and be dominated by its end. As under the influence of emotion our will is impulse so is our intellect precipitate and incapable of deliberation. Only where emotions are organized in sentiments, and subordinated to their control, are the higher powers of the intellect developed. (ibid.:67)

In the treatment of human character as the organization of sentiments, the importance of the inherent basic forces of the human nature of men are stressed. They are conditioned by some tendencies which are developing higher forms of organization. There are others that are destroying the organic structure. The continuous process will never permit an individual to remain in a static condition. He is always improving or retrogressing, because of the forces that are conditioning elements. Hence, in the growth of character, the sentiments which exercise control over the emotions and impulses are of significance to investigators.

McDougall believes that dominant sentiment is of great importance. He claims:

For the generation of moral character in the fullest sense, the strong self-regarding sentiment must be combined with one for some ideal of conduct and it must have arisen above dependence on the regards of the mass of men; and the motives supplied by this master-sentiment in the service of the ideal must attain an habitual predominance. There are men, so well described by Professor James, who have the sentiment and the ideal of the right kind, but in whom, nevertheless, the fleeting unorganized desires repeatedly prove too strong for the will to overcome them. They lack the second essential factor in character, the habit of self-control, the habitual dominance of the self-regarding sentiment; perhaps because the native disposition that is the main root of self-respect is innately lacking in strength; because they have never learnt to recognize the awful power of habit. (58:267-268)

According to Shand's theory (82), virtues are relative instruments for developing a better organization of sentiments. He does not sanction the thought that character is a collection of habits. All habits, in his estimation, are of use in so far as they are contributing factors to specific modes of conduct.

Symonds (88) does not uphold the idea that conduct is a result of a dominant sentiment. His theory will not sanction the belief that self-organizing factors within the individual are the determinants or that they constitute the necessary conditions for character.

The interpenetration theory stresses the dynamic character of experience as a conditioning factor in conduct. The element of moral significance arises from the situation. From the viewpoint, the essence of character is the adjustment of the ends and habits to meet the approval of experiment and analysis. Dewey's (24) interpenetration theory presents character as unpredictable; but character according to Shand is "a derivative of forces the operation of which is controlled by their innate tendencies, of which the individual, like a river channel, is the vehicle through which the water of life flows on its varied but necessary way to the sea." (84:111) Of this theory it has been said:

Education under such a scheme is primarily propaganda. Fundamental life urges must be attached early in life to objects which have social approval. When this is accomplished we can look at the product and remark: "There is a man of character." His chief claim to character will be that he has a system of drives we might call a "heart," and this is "in the right place." (38:168)

In the pattern theory the creative ability of intelligence is overlooked:

The individual is the resultant of hereditary and environmental forces, but these two factors are never placed in such a relation to one another as to suggest the creative unity of both We have . . . an engine and a concept of energy to run it To give character a distinctly human connotation, we yet need some notion of control - that is, brakes and a steering wheel. (ibid.)

The Factor Theory

The factor theory of character is according to Roback, "an enduring psychophysical disposition to inhibit instinctive impulses in accordance with a regulative principle." (80:450) When one has the ability to master or inhibit his impulses, he has character. It is a strength which is governed by a regulative principle. The power of inhibition is:

The distinctive quality of human nature that it can stop acting. Men can be graded on a scale all the way from mere animalism, which is the victim of senses, to the highest character, which is able to resist any desire and call a halt to any activity. (ibid.:169)

Spearman's experiments in the interpretation of intelligence in terms of general mental energy and specific factors, tend to conclude that the union of these explains achievement within the range of any aptitude. His research work at London University shows that the general factor is present in all behavior. The specific factor stands alone except in a few situations as memorization. The factor "w" is included by Spearman to represent persistence of motives; this is the general character factor.

Webb wishes to prove the existence of a general character factor which functions in all conditioning situations. He does not recognize the presence of a "moral quality" in acts of kindness, generosity, etc. In other words, the recognized moral qualities are not associated with that which is labeled moral. Through the Spearman test procedure, he is scientifically seeking for the truth concerning the reality of such a common factor. Webb's research states the following:

The nature of our general factor must obviously be sought in these four headings and any hypothesis as to this must cover all of them. Many people would perhaps at once se-

lect our first heading (moral qualities and the deeper social virtues) as being the most comprehensive and radical, but it is difficult to think of these as covering all the others. The group (2), persistence of motives indicates our general factor just as strongly, and persistence might equally apply to immoral and anti-social purposes. But the possibility suggests itself of reserving the explanation and of deducing, instead, the moral and social virtues from those of persistence, and this view is encouraged by the observation that our remaining groups (instability of emotions, and the lighter side of sociality) may be regarded as being, in some degree, negative aspects of persistence of motives. For the persistence of a motive in consciousness, and its power to appear in consciousness at any time even when the field of ideas occupying consciousness at the moment is little, if at all related, seems quite reasonable to be the base of moral qualities. Trustworthiness, conscientiousness, kindness on principle, reliability in friendship, etc., are lessons derived from social education. These lessons will be learnt more effectively in proportion as they persist long and recur readily. (165:60)

The study regards character as a "persistence of motives." It is recognized as "consistency of action resulting from deliberate volition or will." (ibid.)

Self Theory

The persistence of motives in Webb's theory shows that motive is a great controlling factor. Likewise, there is stressed the consistency of uniform action. Therefore, this evolves into a theory of self-chosen activities.

Dr. Coe (22:196) claims that the child needs to possess virtue, which is strength in right causes or purposes. The possession of virtue means firmness of action and self-chosen objective ends. The objective ends arise in social relations with others. In fact, it is in our human relations that we share our possessions. In this relationship our kind act is not doing for another but rather doing with another. Real moral character is the chosen

important purpose that includes the union of several wills which are firmly striving to accomplish the task.

Character is a response to the needs of the social environment. It is a reaction to a social situation which confronts the individual. The reaction is a deliberate responsiveness to a social need and it strives toward a social ideal which is accepted by the individual. The individual in his social ideal which is accepted by the individual. The individual in his social reaction reflects the state and the state is the type of state that the individuals make it. Individuals, as a group, that strive for harmony and for the general good of all, exhibit character and democracy.

Biological Unity of the Self

Many psychologists advocate the belief that self is not of any great scientific significance. Some philosophers think that self is an uninteresting theme. Shand's view is typical. He writes:

There are our many selves; but there is also our own self. This enigmatical self which reflects on their systems, estimates them, and however loath to do it, sometimes chooses between their ends, seems to be the central fact of our personality. If this be the fact which we can take into account. (88:66-67).

Of self, Dewey states that "all habits are demands for certain kinds of activities; and they constitute the self." Our habits are "the sole agents of observation, recollection, foresight, and judgment; a mind or consciousness or soul in general which performs these operations is a myth." He further states: "Concrete habits do all the perceiving, recognizing, imagining, recalling, judging, conceiving, and reasoning that is done." (24:25, 176, 177)

Yet, Dewey's definition of self gives the impression of a mechanical organization that progresses forward. The movements are the results of the mechanism of the organization. This active organization is the self and as such it must be recognized.

In this mechanical sense, if in no other, the self is a fact which must be dealt with in any theory of character that concerns itself with the realities of experience.
(38:181)

As a Principle of Action

According to Allers (5), the continuous self is character. He says there is a difference in the metaphysical self which is present while change is occurring and the self present at any definite time. Each individual is a self and possesses character. In this field, Allers enjoys a firmer base in metaphysics than in psychology. Yet Allers' definitions act as a cohesive quality among the various theories of character that are of importance. It is of value to understand his line of thought.

Every individual is distinct in his reactions to his environment. His reactions possess a type of adjustment which are common to all his acts. The habitual reactions usually portray the person's character. Generally, an individual's reactions must be studied for an extended period of time in order to select the correct principle which governs his behavior. Nevertheless, one may arrive at an incorrect conclusion because the character of the individual may be undergoing a change.

To comprehend character, one needs to understand the nature of the action. The distinguishing quality of all action lies in the position of the ego in relation to the non-ego. Every action affects the harmony of the

non-ego which adjusts it. The non-ego is composed of the invisible world of ideas and value besides that which is present to our senses. All action is known as a relation between the ego and non-ego. It is the form of the act which Allers considers.

William and Margaret Kelly, in their Introductory Child Psychology, say concerning deliberate acts:

The intellect deliberates on the motives and then presents its judgment, which the will accepts or rejects. The examination of motives is termed deliberation. The acceptance or rejection of the will of the proposed object or act after the motives for or against it have been considered is termed choice or decision. This choice is free, that is, it is subject neither to internal restraint, nor to external compulsion. Freedom of the will does not imply the power to act without motives but means that, after deliberation upon motives presented by the intellect, the will is endowed with the power to choose between the various motives, to act or to abstain from action. There are limits to this power of free choice. Man does not constantly exert this power, nor does he exercise complete dominion over all his actions. A large part of man's life is governed by reflex acts, by the automatic working of the organism. Likewise, many originally voluntary acts have become, through acquired habit, unreflecting and automatic. (49:70-71)

The theory of Allers is that the individual acquires character. The reason for this assumption is based on the "juxtaposition of the will to power and the will to community-concepts."

Hartshorne says:

In more colloquial terms, we recognize the fundamental drives of self-interest and sociality or love. The growth of an integrated personality depends upon the proper realization of each. Abnormalities of all sorts result from the blocking of either and may be understood and corrected only by such readjustments of the self and his capacities on the one hand and his circumstances on the other as will bring about a sense of personal worth and of successful social function. (38:184)

Character as Integration

Integration in character is of great value. Through natural integration the past accomplishments are adjusted sufficiently to permit the harmonious development of the individual. The correct integration of the inner organisms is dependent on the conditioning factors, which are found in the surroundings. The process is continuous and it permits a continuous adjustment in the individual. Hartshorne says:

If we may revert once more to the figure of the machine, we have now in various theories, a concept of its parts, of its structure, of the energy which moves it, of the organization of the energy in life patterns, of its control by a braking system, of its direction by purposes and goals, and finally of the machine itself as a consciously operating unity which finds its true character not in any of these aspects of itself but in their totality as constituting a concrete fact the meaning of which lies not in its parts or structure but in its co-operative relationship to what it takes to be the course and character of the universe. (ibid.:185-186)

The Kind Teacher

The fundamental trait of kindness is very necessary in character development. If the teacher's influence is to be of great value this quality needs to be in evidence in her daily conduct. Gradually the kind teacher will discover a mutual response in her pupils. Peters states that teaching character by example is considered by many the best technique. (149:315) Robert Louis Stevenson, as well as innumerable others, said that the Great Teacher taught by example as well as by precept. He stated: "What the Master taught was not so much a code as a loving spirit; not truths so much as a spirit of truth; not views so much as a view." (72:74)

A loving atmosphere, which is sometimes lacking in childrens' home life, is to be found in the school. To children the teacher is in a special manner the ideal citizen. She is a beacon light which guides and directs the pupils in their social activities. The kindly atmosphere of the school strengthens and encourages not only the pupil but society as a unit.

Allers says:

Pronouncements against severity in upbringing are to be found in the works of the various writers, in St. Marie Madeline Barat no less than in Don Bosco. The following instruction was given by a representative educationalist to the Sisters and Teachers of the house she directed: "One must not be oberbearing with the children One must never be harsh with them, and must treat them with as little severity as possible. If it is necessary to correct them, it should be done in love and kindness, since our Lord never treats us with harshness. We must strive to follow the example of our holy founder, and win over these little ones by humility and gentleness...." These words were spoken by Blessed Marie de Sales Chapuis of the Order of the Visitation who at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century worked with great success in many schools and convents of her order. (5:108)

It is a very vital trust which a teacher holds in the active program of developing good citizens. The schedule needs to encourage various social activities and experiences which are found in the child's social relationship. With this procedure, the proper character foundation is developed and high ideals are appreciated. Therefore, in this type of program the teacher will guide the pupils in the selection of ideals which are beneficial to them.

Many of the ideals which are developed during the activities of the school can be carried over into the leisure hours of the child. Through the proper selection of wholesome activities of the child in school, his

free time will be taken care of in a profitable manner. Worthwhile activities which are worked out to a successful finish, will be the means of developing a balanced outlook on life. All activities which present good opportunities for motivating the pupil's leisure hours should be given special attention.

Kind Parent

The kind parent's influence is preeminent during the period of developing of character. Of this period Samuel Smiles says:

. . . The training of character is in progress - of the temper, the will, and the habits - on which so much of the happiness of human beings in afterlife depends. Although man is endowed with a certain self-acting, self-helping power of contributing to his own development, independent of surrounding circumstances, and of reacting upon life around him, the bias given to his moral character is of immense importance. Place even the highest-minded philosopher in the midst of daily discomfort, immorality, and vileness, and he will insensibly gravitate towards brutality. How much more susceptible is the impressionable and helpless child amidst such surroundings! It is not possible to rear a kindly nature, sensitive to evil, pure in mind and heart, amidst coarseness, discomfort, and impurity.

The kind parent's example is of paramount importance in developing the child's character in the home. Where the spirit of love and duty pervades the home - where head and heart rule wisely there - where the daily life is honest and virtuous - where the government is sensible, kind and loving, then we may expect from such a home an issue of healthy, useful, and happy beings, capable as they gain the requisite strength, of following the footsteps of their parents, of walking uprightly, governing themselves wisely, and contributing to the welfare of those about them.(83:45-46)

Makes Friends

The kind person who maintains a happy medium of sympathy and co-opera-

tion among his associates, makes friends. In a word, he easily adjusts himself in each social relationship which he encounters during his daily activities. Through the continuous adjusting of himself he develops the skill of intelligently assisting his associates. The kind person exhibits to his companions his noble and generous inspirations. The following quotation from The Abbot Wohrmuller's The Royal Law substantiates this point:

"Kindness," says Father Faber, "seems to know of some secret fountain of joy deep in the soul which it can touch, and cause to send its waters upwards, and overflow the heart." Albin Stolz, a famous German biographer, speaks of a Sister of Charity who used to say that to her every day was a holiday. Her heart, to be sure, was watered by a deep, majestic stream of joy. A wave of joy surely passes over the soul of a child when it shares its bread and butter with another. Carnegie was certainly happier in the distributing than in the mere possession of his millions. By his enormous benefactions he sought to leave the world better than he found it, and he said to himself that giving meant happiness to him. He deemed himself happy because it was given to him to spread happiness around him and to brighten the lives of many. Goethe also, who knew life and understood it says: "Only he is happy who is able to give." (97:214)

The associates of a kind man are at ease in his presence because he is natural and unaffected. His sincerity and sympathy will find their outward expressions in a gracious and kindly consideration for the feelings of others. The courteous regard for his associates' welfare wins for the kind man many worth-while friends.

Kindness develops in an individual a charitable, gentle and truthful attitude toward his associates. He perceives the better motives of others in daily life. Through this charitable attitude, the individual is ever progressing toward happiness. The attitude encourages elevating thoughts and develops cheerfulness. It ennobles the possessor and it adds to the

happiness of his associates.

Avoids Disputes

It is necessary for one's personal happiness to know the art of avoiding disputes. On this subject the famous chemist, physicist, and philosopher, Faraday, expresses his attitude in a letter to his friend, Professor Tyndall. After Faraday's progressive and worth-while experiences in life he writes:

Let me, as an old man, who ought by this time to have profited by experience, say that when I was younger I found I often misrepresented the intentions of people, and that they did not mean what at the time I supposed they meant; and further that as a general rule, it was better to be a little dull of apprehension where phases seemed to imply pique, and quick in perception when, on the contrary, they seemed to imply kindly feeling. The real truth never fails ultimately to appear; and opposing parties, if wrong, are sooner convinced when replied to forbearingly, than when overwhelmed. All I mean to say is, that it is better to be blind to the results of partisanship, and quick to see good will. One has more happiness in one's self in endeavoring to follow the things that make for peace. You can hardly imagine how often I have been heated in private when opposed, as I have thought unjustly and superciliously, and yet I have striven and succeeded, I hope, in keeping down replies of the like kind; and I know I have never lost by it. (94:40-41)

Test of a Good Conscience

In true kindness there exists a sense of justice which is motivated by love. Therefore, it is an excellent form of goodness. Kindness is not a mere sentiment but a very important principle governing one's life. Daily the principle exhibits its presence in the individual's conduct and actions. Kindness of this type enriches the life of the possessor.

The voice of conscience directs and influences the best of intellects. Conscience keeps the individual moving forward in the proper direction and

his will acting energetically under the influence of reason. Conscience is the moral ruler of the heart and life processes. It is the dominant factor in every upright and kind individual. The Abbot Wohrmuller says:

Kindness alone can trust itself in all security; it leaves peace of conscience behind it in the soul whence it issues, and even if no show of gratitude corresponds to it, its essentially pacifying nature can at least stir up no storm. (97:24)

He further says that we need to "fearlessly cultivate kindliness of heart, for it is its prerogative to confer happiness unalloyed." (ibid.)

Kindness for Children

Kindness for most children is not a goal in itself. It must be in the concrete if it is to appeal to them. They desire to resemble someone whom they love and recognize as a worthy citizen. With this powerful stimulating motive, their ideals grow rapidly. It is one of the necessary stimuli for directing the child's attention and his desires in the right direction. Although the child desires to be kind, he needs wise and sympathetic guidance in solving his social problems. In his striving to select what is right, the problem must be kept before him until he succeeds in achieving his end. The very realization of conquering the situation develops the child's right impulses. He will find that in similar experiences which will follow, achievement is less difficult. When the problem is solved, he has acquired greater self-control in performing kind acts. This process strengthens the will.

As the child's will-power develops through our quiet and firm insistence on right-doing, he eventually recognizes, understands, and appreciates what

is right. The inner satisfaction which is the result of his kindness, strengthens his ambition to follow the moral law. The inner conscious realization of what is right is his Conscience, which acts as a guide in his daily actions.

The schooling that imparts knowledge or develops skill or cultivates tastes or intellectual aptitudes fails of its purpose if it leaves its beneficiaries no better morally. In all their relationships, present and future, that is, as schoolmates, as friends, as members of a family, as workers in their special vocations, as Americans, as world citizens, the greatest need of our boys and girls is character, the habitual disposition to choose those models of behavior that most do honor to human dignity. Not simply to tell the truth or to respect property rights but to realize in ever more vital ways that the worth of life consists in the behavior to live out in every sphere of conduct the noblest of which one is capable - this it is which gives education its highest meaning It should be to equip as fully as possible with habits, insights and ideals that will enable them to make America more true to its traditions and its best hopes. (67:7)

Chapter Summary: The Importance of Teaching Kindness to Children

In this study, kindness, the giving of strength and courage to others, is interpreted as a basic principle of morality. It possesses the cohesive power of developing unity among individuals. This cohesive force tends toward adjusting individual differences and toward building a strong feeling of understanding and good will among various groups. It can be an active means of promoting character education. It is a tendency that exists to some degree in every individual. Kindness inspires the individual to strive for the worthwhile values in citizenship.

Character education, whether generally or narrowly considered, includes a process of developing desirable attitudes toward kindness. Socially,

kindness is considered as a necessity in a functioning group. It is not an entity which is found in the isolated individual, for experiments show that children reflect the social attitude of the group. Hence, the normal unit for character education is the class or social group.

In the present-day society, kindness is a requisite to social power. When the individual possesses the trait of kindness, he is able to enter successfully into the life around him. Through this contact with society, he has an effective existence. This is a recognized principle and yet one that is frequently neglected. Generally, practical men have a better understanding of it than theorists. It is well understood by men of the world that success requires the ability to have a kindly insight into the minds of other people. All classes of people need it from the pupil to the philanthropist and poet. Every year many young people are preferred for various positions because they seem to have a kindly understanding of others that will promote their efficiency and growth in the various positions they will obtain.

Chapter Summary: The Problem and the Approach

In order to further the study of this problem, the problem of attitudes expressed toward kindness in public education, the following experiment has been planned for the purpose of discovering whether kindness can be taught - in other words, what dispositions the children can be caused to express with regard to kindness.

An account of the technique selected will be given in Chapter IV. For the sake of clearness, however, a summary will be given here.

In the experiment, the subjects were pupils in the fourth grade. In this grade one group of pupils, hereafter known as the Experimental Group, was taught by the modified direct method in a weekly Character Club, in which kindness was stressed. The other group, the Controlled Group, did not emphasize kindness.

A Situations-Test was administered to both groups at the beginning of the experiment and again at the end of twelve weeks.

Each situation in the test was provided with a set of five reactions which contained five degrees of kindness that could be shown in that particular situation. One was a "fifty-fifty" reaction which had two reactions above it and two below it. The extremes denoted extreme kindness or lack of kindness.

The materials which were used for these items were the observed reactions of children in actual situations in the home, in school, and in social and recreational activities. To secure specific situations, the opinions of experienced adults and teachers were secured because they were in a position to offer worthwhile suggestions.

The resulting data will be presented and analyzed in Chapters V and VI .

CHAPTER II

A SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE OF THE FIELD

Kindness as an aspect of character finds a place in many present-day studies in Education.

The most worthwhile and recognized research on the nature of character is the Character Education Inquiry. The investigation develops new techniques and provides tests and scales for hundreds of children. The research workers, May, Hartshorne, and their collaborators, consider the social variables which may condition the children's honesty, their self-control, and their generosity. The study presents the greater part of the scientific procedure available in this field.

This study includes the children in three communities from the fifth to the eighth grades. The group labeled "X" is a favored group from excellent surroundings in a residential part of New Haven, Connecticut. The next division, "Y", is the school population in these grades in the town of Walden, New York, a town of 5,000 near Newburgh, of average economic status, having very few "wealthy" or "poor" families. The last group, "Z", is an unfavored division of low socio-economic status in New Haven. Some national and racial differences, of course, appear, particularly on account of the small foreign-born element in "Y" and the large foreign-born element in "Z". The most striking differences, however, between "X", "Y", and "Z" are those in socio-economic status, and those social variables which usually

go together with such factors. (65:661)

The best procedures are to be found in the Studies in Deceit (39). The techniques used in assembling the necessary information display an inventive ability. In the measurement of moral knowledge and moral opinions the objective questionnaire was used. In the study of overt behavior, the test situation was as far as possible a natural social situation for the ordinary child. One of the tests involved the possibility of cheating in a parlor game. (ibid.:87) Another test permitted the opportunity for being dishonest in an examination. Conduct was tested by concrete situations rather than verbal procedure.

The twenty-one tests of deceit present an elaborate arrangement of the various situations in which the child exhibits his degree of honesty, or his resistance to the temptation to cheat. Many of the tests which consist of scales present opportunities to exhibit the subject's behavior in regard to his school work. Some relate to his conduct at parties. Others pertain to his reactions in situations as found in athletic contests. The tests of deceit may be viewed from the relationship existing between various situations or from the interdependence of the total cheating scores and certain personality traits. The first viewpoint will now be considered. Hartshorne and his associates say:

Strictly speaking, what we measure by our techniques is not conduct, but tendency or attitude, for we remove the external barriers which ordinarily prevent the full expression of the tendency and permit the individual to go as far as he wishes to in the direction of dishonest performance We came upon evidence for believing that the attitudes constituting the driving power of the act are as specialized as the act itself. The tendency to copy answers from answer sheets and substitute them

for one's own work, for example, exists in a measurable quantity peculiar to the individual. Whatever may be the motives which combine to make him use the answer sheet, they operate to overcome just so much resistance and no more, and this resistance can be arranged to begin with just no resistance at all and move up by measured steps to the point where no one will overcome it in order to cheat. The scheme used was, roughly, as follows:

We first arranged a test so that it would be very troublesome and risky to cheat on it. The answers to the questions were made by drawing a line in ink around the correct answer. In order to cheat, a pupil had to erase this mark made in ink and draw another. At the other end of the scale was a spelling test, the answers to which were made by entering a check mark in lead-pencil against a misspelled word. To cheat, all one had to do was to add more check marks or erase and change those already made. In between were procedures requiring varying amounts of time and trouble in order to make one's paper appear like the answer sheet. In order to be absolutely sure of every change made, we gave the test in school and then took it to the office and had an exact copy made of each paper. Then we returned to the school and asked the pupils to score their own papers by referring to the keys we provided. We then compared their papers as they now appeared with what they were before the scoring had been done. In this way every bit of deception was recorded. (39:387-388)

The results of this extensive investigation are interpreted by the research workers as showing a high degree of specificity in character-reactions. Cheating in one situation offers no information at all as to the possibility that the subject will cheat in another situation. It is discovered, however, that students who conquer the greatest resistance in order to cheat when correcting their own papers will overcome, also, less powerful resistances. The subjects who overcome only the weaker resistance will not cheat when the task is more difficult. Thus, the quantitative expression of readiness to cheat applies only for specific situations of cheating. A pupil who cheats in one situation may be very honest under a

slightly different conditioning factor.

It is found that honesty during this period of a child's life is not highly generalized. The subject's reaction is conditioned more by the given situation than by the total habit organization or character that the student possesses. It is discovered, also, in terms of quantitative analysis, where the relative importance of character and the relative importance of the situation are compared in relation to individual differences in conduct, that the situation is the more important variable in developing or causing honesty or deceit in the tested situation. The authors maintain on the subject's reaction to a specific test situation that "the secret of his performance lies in the specific experiences which have brought satisfaction or disappointment to him in the course of his short career." (41:374)

In a group of several hundred children there are three children who cheat in a rather consistent manner. The group possesses only a few more who can be classified as consistently honest. The question involves not only a degree of honesty, but it also includes the consistency of conduct which is found in widely differing situations. The relationship which exists between the amount of honesty and the amount of consistency is of importance. When a child scores perfectly honest on all tests, he is perfectly consistent. It also follows that a student with a perfectly dishonest record on all tests, is perfectly consistent.

The terms consistency and honesty possess qualities which produce some measures of independence. It is necessary to find out what the degree of independence is. The findings indicate that among the forty per cent who are highly consistent, the honesty scores are high. In the group of forty

per cent who are most inconsistent, the honesty scores are low. The researchers hold that a general tendency toward high consistency accompanies high honesty. In general dishonesty in a given situation has no predictive quality for dishonesty in other test situations. On the other hand, honesty has a greater predictive quality for honesty in another test situation.

In dishonest children there is a lack of consistency, and the very honest children possess a high consistency:

This may represent in part the difference between lack and possession of organized ego attitudes relative to honest behavior. When the data are considered, together with the evidence regarding high suggestibility among dishonest children, it seems legitimate to think of the dishonest child as driven by the immediate incentive of the moment. He is either honest or dishonest on the tests, depending simply upon the force of the incentive. The honest child, on the other hand, has, perhaps, self-valuing attitude upon which he may rely when confronted with a situation in which he might cheat. The presence of such inner controls has been found even at a much lower age level; it seems reasonable to guess that inner standards of behavior are elements in habit organization which are of great importance in producing at their upper levels both consistency and honesty. (65:663-664)

The thousands of children whose age-range is from eight to sixteen years reveal that honesty and consistency vary with age. The way in which they vary is definitely associated with their social environment. Children whose fathers' occupations provide a cultural background are less deceptive than children whose fathers are unable to provide the necessities of life. Consistency or integration scores reveal differences found in populations "X", "Y", and "Z". The integration is a slow process in population "Z" and develops in a worthwhile manner in "Y". Likewise, there is a consistent progressive movement in honesty in "Y", and a similar increase in dishonesty

in "Z".

In group morale, the authors state that "suggestibility probably plays a large part in the association of intelligence and honesty of the classroom type." (39:188) It is observed that wide individual differences in suggestibility exist. The results in this field are of interest. Children usually resemble their friends. If one's friend is dishonest, one is dishonest unless the friend is in another grade. Then the correlation is $\#.16$ of friends who are in different grades. The findings lead one to believe that honesty is conditioned by classroom morale. It is discovered that the correlation of the students of a given grade is $\#.60$. However, for friends in the same grade, the correlation is $\#.73$.

The Burdick study (111) endeavors "to question the child concerning those things he will know only if he had been subjected to certain sorts of environment, or the questions have been designed to stimulate answers significant of the environment in which he lives." (39:206)

In the investigation the total honesty scores show that the private school students exhibit more honesty than the public school children. The scores of the Burdick research correlate lower with deception on the I.E.R. (classroom cheating tests) than the scores of Sims. The Burdick scores are considerably higher with cheating on the speed tests. No other deception procedures are given with the Burdick study. It is found that the correlation is $.510$ between Burdick and Sims.

This finding gives evidence that they do not measure the same thing. When some quantitative measure of school morals and group codes is discovered, it is quite probable that a combination of the scores of Sims and

Burdiok will yield, with the intelligence, correlations of .90 with deception.

Another phase of character which is related to this extensive research is "service," which "contrasts work for self and work for others." (40:4) The procedure is measured by various test situations which will result in a natural response from the subject.

The preliminary service tests concern the behavior of children in two significant situations. The tests involve the voluntary giving up of ice cream money to aid the suffering children of Russia, and the response to requests for money for charity. On the giving up of ice cream, the scores are in terms of the reactions to the first, the second, or the third appeal in the experiment. Hartshorne et al. say:

The value of this experiment consists chiefly in the scaling of the appeal. The first statement made to the children was a matter-of-fact announcement offering them the opportunity of giving to charity the cost of the ice cream they were about to receive. More than half (53.5%) of these institutional children, for whom ice cream was an unusual treat, signed away their dessert. On the second appeal, which stated the object for which the money would be sent, 35.6% came in, making 89%; and after the final statement, in which the principal spoke of the joy of giving and the gratitude of the Russian children, 5% more said they would do without their ice cream, bringing the total to 95%. (ibid.:35)

In the appeal for money for charity, the test is administered by the Principal of the school, who informs the children "that they are to receive a gift of money . . . and that this will probably amount to something like twenty-five cents apiece."

He tells the children that he is anxious to discover what they will do with the money. He then presents suitable cards which permit the children

to state their wishes in the matter. He also reminds them that they may contribute part of their share to charity, or keep part of it, or deposit some of the money in the school bank.

When the money arrived, there was nineteen cents for each child instead of twenty-five, ninepennies and one dime, all put up in envelopes for distribution. Before giving out the money, the principal told the children that there would be only nineteen cents instead of twenty-five and suggested that they might like to revise their statement of how they wanted to spend it. Duplicate cards were then given out and each child indicated how he wishes to spend the nineteen cents.
(ibid.:29-30)

When the children indicate their second choice, they receive the money. They are requested to be responsible for it. If any child wishes to deposit his money, he will find that the school bank receives deposits during the remaining part of the day. If a child desires to contribute to charity, he will find a box for that purpose in the principal's office. Those who contribute to charity are requested to write on their individual envelopes their names, the amount donated, and the benefiting charity.

Hartshorne and his associates explain further:

Of those voting all for self on the first occasion, 85% did not change on the second occasion, 14.5% divided their nineteen cents between self and charity, and 5% decided to give all to charity. But of those who at first voted all to charity, only 61.5% persisted on the second vote, 31% going to the other extreme and only 7.5% partitioning the amount. Of those who at first divided the gift, 47% continued to do so, 5% voted all to charity, and 48% voted all to self. This tendency to shift to self is more strikingly seen if, instead of counting as unselfish what was voted for "charity" only, we include what was voted for anything not purely self-fish, such as Christmas gifts for others or cottage fund for radio. . . . Not only did the proportion kept for self rise from 57% on the first ballot to 76.5% on the second ballot, but this proportionately larger figure was obtained chiefly at the sacrifice of the bank account.

Combining bank and self, we find that on the first vote 19 cents was reserved for self and 6 cents was voted for others, whereas when 19 cents was the total amount available, 3 cents on the average was taken from each category, leaving 16 cents for self and 3 cents for others. (ibid.:33)

On the one hand there is the variable tendency to do things for others than for oneself, and on the other hand there is the variable tendency to work with others rather than to stand alone. This second way of acting passes into and through a stage of co-operation for the sake of organized competition to a higher level of co-operation for a non-competitive object, the significance of which lies in the relation of the co-operating individuals to one another. Co-operation and charity, as thus defined, are usually but not always mingled. One sometimes does things for others without considering what the others really want done. And again, a person may work with others in order to accomplish some purpose which he shares with them without intending to be of any direct assistance to the other members of the group. Neither mode of behavior taken by itself is as socially useful as the combination of the two. (ibid.:53)

In our attempts to devise test situations, we have had two modes of response in mind. In some tests it would be possible for a child to work on the charity motive solely - the situation calls for no direct co-operation. In none of our co-operative tests, however, is the charity aspect of the behavior absent, for the pupil chooses whether he will help his classmates or work for himself. We did not succeed in building a test which would reach the higher levels of co-operation, but had to content ourselves with such co-operation as was called into play through an interclass contest. (ibid.:53)

Five tests of service or generosity were chosen because of their suitability. They are the following:

(1) The "efficiency co-operation" test: This is administered so that a child works on a series of arithmetic problems for himself in a contest with other children, and it is compared with the work in his class in an interclass contest. One minute is devoted to each side of the testing sheet. Thus every subject spends two minutes working for self and two min-

utes working for the class. The procedure continues through twelve units of work. Every subject has six units of work for each motive. Also, prizes are given in some instances to the children who work very rapidly. The opportunity is provided for the whole classes to win a prize on the basis of the score of the class.

The score for self is the average number of problems which are finished in twelve minutes when the pupil is working for self. This is compared with his "class" score, which is based on the average number of problems which are completed in twelve minutes when he is working for the class. The Efficiency Co-operation score is measured by the difference between these two averages. When a child shows that he labors as hard for his class's success as he works for his own achievement, his co-operation score is zero. When he exhibits more effort for his class than for self, the score is positive. The negative score means that he strives especially for his own success. Even though, in the beginning, the work for self displays greater effort, yet the most profitable discovery here is the conditioning factor of time, which seems to favor the individual effort rather than the co-operative type.

(2) The "free choice" test: In this test, which followed the Efficiency Co-operation test, the subjects received seven more test sheets. It was the purpose of this investigation to measure the effect of personal and social motivation. Maller explains this as follows:

The personal or self motive used was one of ordinary competition for recognition and reward The social or group motive used consisted in creating a contest between the classes The Free Choice Test attempted to throw the two motives into open conflict. Opportunity was given

to continue working for self or for class. Each minute's work was performed for class involved that much of a loss of one's own score. (57:14-15)

The study shows that the 1,538 children tested possessed an age-range from eight through seventeen. They were divided into forty-four groups which included the children from the fifth through the eighth grade.

In this investigation Maller (57) finds that scores are governed generally by the manner in which the group is situated. When one classroom competes against another classroom, it is discovered that the score for the group is consistently less than for work for self. Although members of the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts display evidence of a higher co-operation than their associates, the research reveals that the girls' scores are lower in co-operation which involves speed. The difference between self and group work for girls is greater than for boys. The girls are, "however, more co-operative on the test involving choice, choosing to work for the group more often than the boys." The boys exhibit greater variability in contributing either all or none of the units of work to their groups. (*ibid.*:160) Maller (57), in fact, arranged the motives studied by his free choice test in the following order of strength: (1) work for one's own sex; (2) work for oneself; (3) work for one's team; (4) work for one's school class; and (5) work for an arbitrary group to which one is assigned by the teacher.

G. and L. Murphy partially interpret Maller's work as follows:

In addition to these general differences, he finds certain trends appearing after a long work period which bring into somewhat bolder relief the difference between the two kinds of incentives. In the Free Choice Test, working for oneself or for one's school class, for example, the discrepancy between the two incentives increases as the work goes on; the weaker motive becomes relatively weaker still. A good

deal, however, depends on the technique. The difference in speed, for instance, between self-work and class-work increases where the work sheets for self and for class are frequently alternated, while if such work sheets for self and for class are given at different times involving no rapid alteration from one to the other, the speed difference between the two decreases. (64:465)

In a group of 120 subjects, the Free Choice Test was repeated after one week. The self-correlation was .88. This gives evidence that children are consistent in the manner in which they deny themselves for the welfare of the social group.

(3) The "School-Kit" Test: In this test every subject was given a pencil case which contained ten articles. They are as follows: ruler, pencil sharpener, eraser, pen, penholder, double pencil, drinking cup, and three other pencils. Every student who received a kit may quietly help to make up some kits for other children. The child who gives an article places it in his individual red envelope. Every subject deposits his envelope in the basket when he leaves the room. Hartshorne gives the results of this test:

The percentage who gave away anything at all from their school kits tends to increase with grade in population "X" (53%, 60%, 62%, 74%), but not consistently in "Y" (68%, 53%, 57%, 88%); the seventh and eighth grades combined are superior to the fifth and sixth in both "X" and "Y"; but the drop in "Z" is startling. In this unfavored community, the eighth grade children did not have the Kits Test, but . . . 65% of the fifth and sixth grades gave something, only 23% of the seventh grade anything. (40:127)

(4) The "Envelope Test"; Each child is given a letter which relates the need of pictures and stories for sick children in hospitals. Every child, likewise, receives four envelopes and in each one he may place the material for other children. The child finds that every envelope has a label on it,

and this is an aid in collecting the material. All the envelopes are deposited in the office at one time, or one at a time, during the two weeks of the testing program.

The results of the Envelopes Test show that a large proportion are not contributors to the needs of sick children. Hartshorne says:

The accelerated girls (85%) again do better than the normal, but here the retarded (64%) fall below the normal (73%), as in the case of the boys, where the proportions are 55% for accelerated, 48% for normal, and 35% for retarded, the order for both combined is accelerated (71%), normal (60%), retarded (46%). (ibid.:136)

(5) The Money-Vote test: Each class is given an opportunity, through a straw ballot, to specify the manner of spending the money which the class wins. The ballot presents five possibilities of investing the money and each subject designates his first preference by marking 1, and his last or fifth selection by writing 5. The votes of the class indicate that they prefer to: (a) apply the money to a worthy cause or person outside the school; (b) purchase something for the school; (c) apply it to the needs of the room; (d) give to the child with the highest score the entire money; or (e) distribute the amount equally among the members of the class. Hartshorne says:

The following wording was finally adopted for the introduction of the vote, which constituted, as can readily be seen, a test of generosity or charitableness: "Do you think our class will get a prize? We might. If we do, what shall we do with the money? Let's take a vote now just to see what everyone thinks he would like the class to do with the money, in case we win a prize. I have some slips of paper here showing ways of spending the money." (ibid.:57)

In the Money Vote Test scores, the prize money which is donated to

outside charity ranks highest. In this scoring, the girls are consistently more charitable than the boys. The boys possess one chance in a thousand, if this test is given again, of excelling. Hartshorne describes this test as follows:

The Money Vote Test was repeated in two of the population "p" (private school) classes. On the first occasion, the prize money was actually in hand. On the second occasion, it was a possibility. In one class (a sixth grade) there was a discussion of the first vote, but not in the other (a fourth grade). The sixth grade self "r" was .51, and the fourth grade. 65, in spite of the change in the situation. (ibid:100)

When all the findings in the five test situations on the child's reputation for co-operativeness, are studied, they constitute a significant measure of reputation. It does not follow that the subject's inner character coincides with measures of his reputation. His inner character does not necessarily adhere to measures of his external conduct. Therefore, it is of paramount value to know the extent of agreement between reputation and conduct, because it presents an enlightened procedure in the field of character.

The difference in the charitable and co-operative tendencies of the two sexes concerns education in the field of character. Concerning the test situations Hartshorne speaks as follows:

On the two tests which require immediate choice and action in the classroom, namely, the Kits and the Free Choice, the girls and boys are indistinguishable in the amount of helpfulness shown, but the boys vary more among themselves than the girls do. Also more girls than boys respond to the appeal to help out the class. On the Money Vote Test, where there is a choice but no immediate action, the girls show a superior tendency toward charitable decisions regarding the way in which a sum of money should be spent. On the Envelopes Test, which was done at home, the girls both are more

commonly helpful and also do more work than the boys. On the Efficiency Co-operation Test, the girls at first exceed the boys, but they soon drop off in the rate at which they work for their class, whereas the boys, although less persistent for themselves, keep their work for class at a rate relatively superior to that of the girls. (ibid.:153)

Hartshorne explains further procedures as follows:

In spite of the inadequacy of any easily obtainable external criterion to serve as a measure of the true significance of a character test, we have felt it wise to gather all the information we could concerning the reputation of our cases. We have devised several ways of discovering what it is for each child and of determining its amount and value, namely: (1) the record of social service in school projects; (2) the Portrait Matching device; (3) the Guess Who Test; (4) the Check List; and (5) the Conduct Record. The first and third were used in population "P" (private school) only, and the second in "P", and certain groups in "X", "Y", and "Z". (ibid.: 75)

The "record of social service" starts during the Christmas season, and continues during the remaining part of the school year. All achievements are kept by the teacher who makes an entry of the subject's reaction as it occurs. Every performance is guided by a memorandum which is prepared by the research workers. The scores represent students' activities which are summarized in terms of service scores according to their opportunities.

The study shows that the scores of 167 subjects were well distributed. Four students received the highest possible score, and five were included in the lowest possible score. Of the group, the students on an average accepted two chances in four to be of assistance in social service.

The "Portrait Matching" device uses descriptive paragraphs (on the technique of Theophrastus). The Judge selects the students in a group whose qualities are described in the paragraph. The following is an instance which Hartshorne gives:

"B" is always thoughtful for others around him and sees many opportunities for little kindly acts without waiting to be asked He is not greatly interested, however, in remote needs unless they are serious and appealing. (ibid.:83)

The scores in the Portrait Matching technique are well distributed, which is one of the best measures of reputation for population "P". An outstanding factor in this procedure is that the teachers are better acquainted with their students. However, records in some instances are incomplete, and, therefore, are omitted.

The "Guess Who" Test, which is an abbreviation of the Portraits device, is an instrument of measure for finding the general reputation of the students among their associates. The test includes not only charity, but other qualities of the pupils. It is so devised that the pupils are the judges instead of the teacher. In the procedure, an example which Hartshorne gives is as follows: "Here is someone who is kind to younger children, helps them on with their wraps, helps them across the street, etc." (ibid.:88)

The total distribution gives evidence of the absence of the tendency to assign to different students the same score, which is a recognized defect of rating devices. In the test, desirable conduct is indicated by the scoring. Also, undesirable conduct is carefully identified on the test. In the distribution, the average number of positive votes is 5.6. The mean number of negative votes is 4.6.

The "Check List" is a technique for acquiring the opinions of teachers concerning the pupils. The principal aim in this procedure is to discover the pupil's general reputation. The arrangement includes 160 words which

are divided into eighty pairs of antonyms. In the test, one half of the list of words is on one sheet of paper, and their opposites are entered on another sheet. Both forms or sheets are used by the rater.

Each form in the scoring of words which gives evidence of reputation for services is regarded as one unit. The subtraction of the number of negative words from the number of positive words gives a negative or a positive score. The score is zero when no service words are checked, or when the plus and minus scores balance. Hartshorne says:

Since there were usually two Teachers' records and two forms for each teacher, the scores thus ranged from $\frac{1}{2}$ 4 to - 4. When the teachers disagreed, one marking both forms "plus," and the other marking both forms "minus," the resulting zero was called 0-, 0 being reserved for those receiving no checks at all. In cases where only one teacher's record was available and where two teachers marked only one form, the score was doubled, the zeros remaining zero or neutral. (ibid.:93)

The "Conduct Record", which is a rating device, is scored on a five-point scale. An entire class is rated by the teacher on a series of conduct tendencies which are classified as persistence, honesty, sense of justice, etc. The total standard scores are from $\frac{1}{2}$ 4 to a - 5. In the scoring, a second rating on these tendencies is not a matter of record, and the reliability from the figures is not available.

Data which are accumulated from the three devices - the "Check List," the "Guess Who" Test, and the "Conduct Record" - are the total reputation scores. Research workers are in a position to compare the total reputation score with the total service score on the five main tests. They find that the correlation between the two is .61. Even though this appears low, the

correlations between ratings for intelligence and test scores are only about

.50. Of the correlation Hartshorne says:

Teachers' ratings, however, probably include prejudice, and this prejudice operates to give a spuriously high correlation between one set of ratings and another. The same is true of the pupils' ratings. The combination of Teachers' and pupils' opinion is, therefore, a better measure of reputation than either one alone. The prejudice (error) in one offsets that in the other. But we may assume that they cover a certain common amount or area of experience correctly. The amount of this common opinion is expressed by the correlation between the teachers' and pupils' opinion, which is .39. If each were a perfect measure of the entire reputation of the pupils, the "r" would be ± 1.00 . (*ibid.*:112)

Even though the correlation between total reputation and total behavior is not high, yet the tests are of value. The findings show that behavior changes from one test to another, and they give an intercorrelation between $\pm .32$ and $\pm .12$. If the tests correlate too high, they are, in some degree, a test of the same qualities. Since the correlation is low, there must be a greater number of units which give evidence of co-operative behavior.

The co-operative tendencies of grade school children are specific rather than general. Still, a conscious low consistency or "generality" of co-operativeness is evident.

The authors conclude that the five tests of service which we now have are valid as far as they go but that they go only one-seventh of the way.

(*ibid.*:116) They say:

In population "X" there are two schools, one of which contains grades five and six, and the other seven and eight. Consequently, the grade differences for "X", are not as comparable as those of the other two populations, each of which is one school. The fact that the fifth and sixth grades in "X" score higher than the seventh and eighth may be due to grade or to school morale. Both schools, however,

are in the same kind of environment, so it may be that children of the well-to-do classes grow less co-operative as they ascend the grades.

The case of population "Y" and "Z" is much clearer. In "Y" the total service scores definitely increase as the grade increases, but in "Z" the reverse is true. It is interesting to note that the fifth grades of both "Y" and "Z" have the same mean service score, but between the sixth grades there is a difference of three points, which is not significant; between the seventh grades the difference is eight points, and between the eighth grades it is sixteen points. When the fifth and sixth grades are combined, the difference is one point; when the seventh and eighth grades are combined in each population, the difference between "Y", seventh and eighth, and "Z", seventh and eighth, is eleven points. These differences hold true for both sexes.

There can be no doubt that the upper grades and to a certain extent the older groups in "Y" have a higher average service score than the younger groups and the lower grades; in "Z" the reverse is true. . . . At the level of the fifth grade both "Y" and "Z" are the same, and, in fact, both ahead of "X". It might seem that the longer the children remain in the "Z" type of environment, the less helpful and charitable they become; but the longer they remain in the "Y" type of environment, the more helpful and charitable they become. (ibid.:125-127)

The differences between scores on specific tests present worthwhile findings. We have evidence that the "Y" population exceeds the "X" on the Free Choice Test and the Efficiency Co-operation Test. On the Money Vote Test, "P", a private school, leads, "X" scores next, and "Y" bears the lowest scores. The private school surpasses the others on the Kits Test. Here "Y" is second, and "X" occupies third place. However, the findings on the Envelopes Test, that is, in the number and quality of jokes, stories, puzzles, and pictures, reveal that the children of "X" excel the children of "Y" and "Z". (ibid.: 179) But then Hartshorne says:

But "X" is more co-operative than "Y" on the Money Vote and in the amount of work done on the Envelopes Test by those who did anything. The latter might be explained in terms of opportunity - the children of "X" probably had ready access to more magazines at home than those of "Y". The Money Vote Test required no immediate action, but represented the children's ideas of the relative importance of charity, class loyalty, and self-interest. Their votes correspond to their behavior and the two "class versus self" test which showed "X" to be relatively weak in class loyalty. (ibid.:180)

The general environmental factors are of value to a certain degree, but of greater importance are the specific factors of family and associate likeness. Children in population "P" whose parents co-operate in the returning of the home-functioning record, score 58% in working for the class in a spelling contest. Of this group, 42% specify that they work for their own interest. All the children who wish to promote the group's welfare give evidence which denotes that 65% of the parents are co-operative. The children who vote to strive for self have returns which show that 35% of the parents are co-operative. Of this matter Hartshorne says:

In populations "X" and "Y", 218 children came from homes where parents co-operated in filling out the information blanks. These children have a mean total score of 113. Two hundred eighty children came from homes where the parents did not co-operate. These have a mean service score of 111.5. The difference between these means is 1.5. The chances are about ten to one that this difference would always be greater than zero.

Still further evidence that children of co-operating parents are more charitable and helpful than those of non-co-operating parents is secured from the results of a test that the parents took. In addition to asking the parents of "X" and "Y" for informational data, we imposed on them a more difficult task, that of actually taking a test. The children of those parents in "X" and "Y" who took tests have a mean total score - service score - of 117, against 113.6 for children of those who did not take the test. (ibid.: 205-206)

The rank difference of the correlations of the class service scores of boys and those of girls in the Free Choice score in population "Z" is $\pm .92$. The total service score for the same group gives a classroom correlation of $\pm .95$. As there is considerable classroom homogeneity in "Z", the results are more definite than the investigators found in "X" and "Y".

Data which pertain to motion pictures are secured for the survey through the questionnaire technique. All subjects are asked to state the number of times that they frequent the shows. The facts show a range from 0 to 7 or more movies a week. With this evidence the research workers have an adequate number of subjects for study who attend 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or more shows each week. A procedure of this type permits a reasonable comparison of the groups' attendance. Hartshorne especially notes one case:

One comes often on interesting individual cases in studying over the records. Here, for example, is a seventeen year old boy in the eighth grade who reported going to the movies seven times a week. Although getting reasonably good school marks, his reputation is among the lowest of any we have, both with teachers and fellow pupils. His deportment record is "F". . . . His score on the service test is rather low, and on some of the tests he did nothing at all. (ibid.:232)

The Sweet experiment employs fifty items which contain scores for 118 boys in populations "X" and "Y", and sixteen boys in "Z". The study compares in general the answers to the questions: How do I feel? How most boys feel? and, How I think I ought to feel? From this procedure many distinct measures are secured. The research includes criticism of the average boy, feeling of difference, deviation from the group idea of the right, self-criticism (inferiority and superiority), and social insight. Hart-

shorne says:

The reliabilities of these measures range from .785 to .939. The data consist of the boys' subjective feelings or rather of their report of their feelings. Validation is, therefore, required. General agreement between the test scores and the results of psychiatric case studies was found, and boys reported as "better adjusted" and as "least well adjusted" by social workers could be distinguished by their answers on the Sweet test. (41:281)

Integration exhibited by performance on the Sweet test is found to have associated with it, in one form or another, such behavior as honesty, co-operation and charity, the ability to make good scores on the moral knowledge and opinions tests, sense of adjustment, culture, reputation, and socio-economic status In this case alone has socio-economic status proved to be a factor in character. (ibid.: 286)

The research of Hartshorne and May on self-control (40) has primarily to do with the ability to stop in the middle of an interesting activity, and to continue with persistence despite fatigue and distraction. These studies though most interesting in themselves seem much less significant for social psychology than are the Studies in Deceit (39) and Studies in Service (40). It will be noted that low positive correlations between persistence and these other character tendencies are found, just as a low correlation between service and honesty is found. It may, in fact, be of some value to compare the intercorrelations between scores made on the various character elements studied by the Character Education Inquiry. (64:374)

With honesty, the total inhibition score correlates .005 in population "X", .326 in "Y", .194 in "Z", and .208 for "X", "Y", "Z", all combined. The total inhibition score with the service score is the following: .164, .134, .097, and .130. The total inhibition score correlates .109, .341, .193, and .174 with persistence. The total persistence score correlates

.083 in "X", .358 in "Y", .186 in "Z", and .129 in "X", "Y", "Z", all combined. With the total service score, the total persistence score correlates .109 for "X", .219 in "Y", .063 in "Z", and .049 for "X", "Y", "Z" all combined.

Intercorrelation of Total Conduct Scores -
Populations "X", "Y", and "Z" Combined

	Honesty	Service	Inhibition	Persistence
Honesty	(.86)	.303	.361	.129
Service	.439	(.56)	.276	.049
Inhibition	.487	.472	(.61)	.123
Persistence	.166	.083	.202	(.61)

(Self-control is here separated into Inhibition and Persistence.)

In this table the figures of the upper right section are the raw intercorrelations In the lower left sections the same figures are corrected for attenuation. The figures in parentheses are the coefficients used in making this correlation.¹ The largest corrected coefficient, .487, is between honesty and inhibition; and the smallest, .083, is between service and persistence. These figures represent the maximum correlations we should be likely to secure if we had perfect measures of each type of conduct or group of conducts, with as much community between situations as there is in the case of the measures already obtained. (41:131)

The Table discloses the fact that a positive correlation exists between "desirable" traits and the findings which support the theory of specificity of conduct.

The investigation furthers the viewpoint of the situational approach. It reaffirms the belief that the social conduct in children is rather a set of tendencies. All the data indicate that through specific situations, these tendencies are awakened in many ways. Therefore, the results are the

1. They are the Spearman-Brown predictions based on the average intercorrelations of the tests involved.

best basis in this field for understanding the nature of character in later childhood.

McGrath's study (59) is concerned with the problem of studying children's moral concepts. In her approach she divides the tests into three groups:

Each brings into play a different method by which the moral concepts of the child may be drawn out. They are, briefly, a series of questions and exercises, a group of pictures, and a number of little stories.

In compiling these three groups, the attempt was made to touch upon the most vital and the most concrete problems that the average child is called upon to meet. The tests as first presented to about two hundred children differ materially from the revised forms.

The tests were given both as individual and as group tests. The original idea was to make the study solely from group tests, but this was found impracticable with children below the fifth grade because of their inability to express themselves in writing. From the fifth grade through the high school the tests were given to groups varying in size from fifteen to two hundred. (ibid.:11)

The tests are given in both the public and the parochial schools.

The morality of the young child assumes the concrete form of habits; abstract principles are still beyond his grasp. This principle expresses a concept which should be basic in all educational work, especially in moral education. We are no less creatures of habit morally than we are physically. We learn a complex physical fact by continual practice of the separate acts of which it is composed until they have become habitual; we grasp complex moral principles through familiarity and practice of concrete moral acts, until they have become habitual and are amalgamated into a composite whole. We desire our children to be developed morally.

The only way to accomplish this end is to train the child from infancy in the performance of specific moral acts. The training must go on all the time and in all places to be effective We should, therefore, train children to see the moral significance of their acts and to perform them always from the highest possible motives. In order

to carry out this indirect method of teaching morals effectively, the direct method should also be used. (ibid.:184)

The question "Is it a sin to stay away from Church on Sunday?" exhibits the difference in viewpoint of two groups. In answering "Yes," the lowest percentages in three different groups of public school children, are 56, 67, and 61. The percentage in the parochial school children is 97. The parochial school children respond that it is a sin to cheat. In many situations, the difference between the Catholic and the non-Catholic on conduct standards is based on their reaction to "sin."

In the research of McGrath, the subjects range through the pre-adolescent and early adolescent, and she concludes:

Children are, in general, kind, polite, charitable, and honest in their dealings with others, but they are selfish as to personal gain and in satisfying their own wants first. Children become conscious just before the onset of adolescence that "the ethical ideal of life is not to be found in pleasure but in duty," but long before this time they are conscious that certain specific altruistic traits are desirable. (ibid.)

Lockhart's study is entitled The Attitude of Children Toward Law. (55)

The investigator presents a series of legal and moral questions to fifty successful lawyers who are recognized by the State of Iowa. A questionnaire which reveals the adult attitudes in a series of legal and moral issues is used. From it an agreement of opinion on the questionnaire is found in the replies of the lawyers .

The questionnaire is, also, administered to 3,500 Iowa students who are in the fourth to the twelfth grades. The scores of grades four to nine advance from grade to grade toward the mean score of the lawyers. No great or outstanding advance is found beyond that. The findings present a gradual

moving toward the attitudes of the lawyers as the child goes through school.

Besides, the gross scores are not as enlightening as the analysis which are based upon intelligence quotients. On the basis of intelligence, it is perceived that from fourth to the eighth grade, the group "A" (I.Q. above 120) conforms to the adult standard. Section "E" (I.Q. 105 to 120) follows. Group "C" (I.Q. 91 to 105) is next. Class "D" (I.Q. 90 or less) is last.

In other words, intelligence helps a child to grasp the issues as the adults see them. On the other hand, all this is upset in grades nine to twelve. Here the "C" children do, indeed, stand above the "D", and the "E" above the "C" in every grade; but in three out of the four grades the "A" children turn sharply in the opposite direction. The brightest children in grade twelve fall so far short of conforming to the lawyers' standard that they are on a par with the average fifth grade child. Moreover, a group of fifty adults in a civic club made a score about identical with that of these "A" children; but the number of cases and the variability make the results merely suggestive. (65:680)

The research finds that children who are measured by the test tend toward the adult attitude regarding law. The children in grades four, five and six are farther from the adult attitude than are those in the high school. The outstanding conclusion is that the children do not differ greatly from adults in their attitude toward the law. The test locates individual cases that differ widely from the attitude expressed by mean scores, but these cases appear to bear no relationship to age, grade level, intelligence, or socio-economic status.

This study shows clearly that attitude of children toward law is approximately the same in all social and civic conditions whether in the rural community or a city environment, and "is but slightly different from

that of adults, whether lawyers, graduate students, or members of a civic club." (55:36-37)

In Laws' investigation (54), the parents are organized in groups "for the study of problems of the social adjustment of children." (54:3)

Among the problems which the parents consider, one finds the need of a kindly attitude toward the child. The study is organized into fourteen distinct groups and the work continues for two consecutive semesters. Each group meets twice a month and at every meeting it spends one hour in consideration of the objectives of the investigation. All the groups are conducted with democratic procedure and they progress according to local conditions.

At the beginning of the project, the enrollment is one hundred eighty-two adults, and at the end of the school year, there are three hundred seventy-seven students. This is indicative of the growing interest in the study of parent-child relationships. Among the parents, those whose children are under twelve years of age compose sixty per cent of the group. The members whose children are over twelve years of age form twenty per cent of the enrollment. The remaining twenty per cent are parents of children whose ages range from one to eighteen.

The material which is used in the tests is obtained as follows:

(1) The record of type problems and diary records of study groups or the habit clinics serve as a guide to the study groups. (2) The psychological examinations of children in the habit clinics furnish material for the group. (3) The material which is agreeable to the needs of the Committee of thirty-five; parents, teachers, and public health nurses, is an aid to

the study.

The material results in four types of tests, as follows: (a) Cross-out words Test; (b) Parents' traits that express attitudes; (c) Procedures of parents which are contributing factors to the social adjustment of the child; (d) Reactions of children that express their social adjustment.

All tests were used at the end of the investigation and they were checked by the subjects taking the tests. Every mother had the opportunity to select three persons who knew her in relation to her children well enough to be able to rate her in relation to the items on which she had rated herself. "It was agreed that no name should be placed upon any test, and that the persons who checked the mother were to mail records of their judgments directly to the examiner, without the mother's seeing them." (ibid.:7)

The listing of each trait, which depends upon the differences between the average rating of fifty parents and the average of the ratings of the observers, places the "kindly attitude" in the upper half of the list.

Gertrude Laws says:

[Although mothers are inclined] to rate themselves somewhat lower than observers rate them, mothers tend to rate their children's responses somewhat higher than observers rate them. On 37% of the responses of the children, the rating of the parents was the same or less than the ratings of the observers. On 63% of the responses the parents rated the children higher than the observers rated them. Of the responses or habits in which the parents rated the children lower than observers rated them, three causes are indicated by the nature of the responses or habits. (ibid.:18)

The responses which are marked lower by the parents than the observers are of interest. They consist of the following: (a) the personal habits of

the child, such as putting playthings away; (b) when the parent requires greater perfection from the child's response than the observer does; and (c) when the child's social response is greater outside the family circle.

Peck's study (147) compares the character traits of five eminent men. They are the following: Charles Darwin, the scientist; Cardinal Richelieu, the counsellor of Church and State; Benjamin Disraeli, the statesman; St. Francis of Assisi, the mystic and leader; and Mozart, the artist. The investigator claims that to analyze a character that has made a real mark in history is of interest and value to society. She frankly admits that the "actual selection of the names is made on a basis of interest, apparent contrast in personality, and availability of material about the lives." (ibid.:37-38)

The rating is accomplished as follows: the rating of close associates; the rating of seventy casual observers; and the correlation between the rating of the associates and the observers. The personality traits which are found in Reams' Study are used in selecting the qualities which are necessary in a human being. Among these qualities is kindness. Peck's scientific investigation acknowledges that the character trait of kindness is present in the five eminent men.

The Middletown Studies (56) are a significant investigation of intra-family attitudes and employ both questionnaire studies and observation for arriving at more accurate conclusions. The study determines the worthwhile traits which are possessed by parents according to the child's point of view, and those qualities which parents stress in the rearing of their children. The research workers also specify the "sources of disagreement between

348 boys and 382 girls and their parents."

On the whole, it is discovered that 61.5% of the high school boys and 66.5% of the high school girls desire the kindly father who spends his time "reading, talking, and playing with them." The second trait of the father which receives great approval from 33.9% of the boys and 42.4% of the girls is "respecting his children's opinions." The marking of desirable traits suggests that the kindly attitude of parents toward children is of greater value to the children than the giving of material comforts because the trait of "owning a good-looking car" is marked by only 3.0% of the boys and 1.7% of the girls.

The preferable traits in Middletown mothers are also of importance. It is found that a kindly mother who is a "good cook and housekeeper," is preferred by 57.5% of 369 boys and 52.2% of 523 girls. The next trait of the mother, which is of great value among 34.1% of the boys and 40.7% of the girls, is "always having time to read, talk, go on picnics, or play with her children." The unpopular trait in a mother for the boys is "Being prominent in social life," and for the girls, "being well-dressed." (ibid.: 524)

The research reveals in the "sources of disagreement between 348 boys and 382 girls and their parents," many enlightening facts. One of the causes of disagreement which is of paramount concern to 45.4% of the boys is "the hour you get in at night," and it is also checked by 42.7% of the girls. The girls claim that "the number of times you go out on school nights during the week" represents 47.6% of the beginning of differences, and this is also upheld by 45.5% of the boys. This claim evidently meets

with 98% of the boys' approval and 97.9% of the girls' sanction when we base our estimate on the per cent commenting on the questionnaire.

(ibid.:522)

Likewise, the attitude of 104 working mothers are given, and there is presented the attitudes of thirty-seven mothers who are in the business-class group. One perceives that the mothers of the working-class group stress the aggressive or "getting ahead" trait, which to them is one of the necessary requirements of daily life. The mothers of the business-class group attribute greater importance to "frankness," "independence," and "tolerance," which to them are essential factors in an individual's social or business activities.

Brenner's study (14) is an attempt to study experimentally the after-effect of immediate and delayed praise, blame, and indifference upon the learning and recall of a group, and also to determine the attitude of the children toward the learning situation as revealed by the statements of the children and as judged by the teachers and the examiner. (ibid.:14)

The research pertains to students of twelve third-grade classes, four classes in each of three schools. In the study there are 403 children whose average age is eight years, five months. The pupils are divided into six groups. Each group possesses a class which is above the average and another class which is called "normal."

The material comprises eighty difficult words from the Ayres Measuring Scale for Ability in Spelling. Ten different words which the children are unable to spell are placed on eight 14" x 20" cards. Each card is presented to the class for them to study for four minutes. At the end of this time,

the children are given two minutes to write the words which they recall. At the end of another two minutes, the examiner in the "Immediate Praise" group, praises the group. After the same period of time the "Immediate Blame" group are reproved. On the next day, this technique is applied to the "Delayed Praise" and the "Delayed Blame" sections. The two Control Groups receive no comments from the examiner. This procedure continues throughout the test. Brenner states his conclusions as follows:

These data point to the conclusion that an incentive which works for a better performance in learning will also work for a better integration between learning and recall.

The results also suggest that the motivation on the first trial is more potent in affecting the association between learning and recall, than the motivation on any other trial.

Blame is the most power incentive to affect integration on the first trial, and it sustains its influence for a longer period than any other incentive. (ibid.:40)

The study of Bathurst (106) endeavors to analyze the development of sympathy and of resistance among seventy-three children. Their age-range is from one year and six months to five years and six months. The research seeks to determine the effect of environment and of the possession of pets among the subjects, who are a group of thirty-six boys and thirty-seven girls. Bathurst says: "Resistance was measured by actual contacts with children and by assigning scores to various types of behavior. Sympathy was measured by telling a story which was designed to elicit a sympathy response." (106:625) It is recognized that girls exhibit more resistance than boys, but that boys and girls are equally sympathetic. The kindly and sympathetic attitude is not conditioned by environment, but is developed through chronological age and through the possession of pets.

Chapter Summary

All the experiments in the studies which have been mentioned in this chapter have dealt with the trait of kindness.

The best known and most elaborate attempt to measure character in terms of conduct was the Character Education Inquiry, which was conducted by Hartshorne, May, and others. The study, which these investigators entitled specifically Studies in Service, includes not only kindness, but also other qualities of young children. The aim was to measure what they call "the disposition to service," which is, of course, roughly synonymous with "kindness."

In the study by Marie C. McGrath, the subjects ranged through the pre-adolescent and early adolescent years and were taken from parochial and public schools. She was concerned with the problem of studying moral concepts in children, and variations with age and school status in degrees of understanding such concepts. She concludes that children are kind, charitable, and honest in their dealings with others, but selfish in matters of personal gain.

The significance of parents' attitudes for personality development was the concern of the investigation of parent-child relations by Laws. The parents' ratings of their own attitudes and practices were compared with the average of the ratings of three observers who were, according to the parents, qualified judges. In this procedure the parents discovered that there is a need of a kindly attitude toward children.

A very valuable study of intra-family attitudes is the one found in

This research indicates the traits which are to be desired in parents from the viewpoint of about seven hundred high-school boys and girls. The children's markings of desirable traits in parents include an attitude of kindness.

Attitudes are conspicuous among the personality traits which have been studied intensively by various research workers. So essential are social attitudes that education is frequently defined in terms of the building up of attitudes toward recreation and work, toward our country and other countries, toward private business and public policies.

The numerous pieces of research that have been discussed in this chapter show clearly the importance that modern education places upon social attitudes; and many of these works of research have illuminated the problem of kindness.

In the next chapter methods of measuring attitudes will be discussed with a view to providing a background for the present project.

CHAPTER III

THE MEASUREMENT OF ATTITUDES

In view of the nature of the present study, attitudes expressed toward kindness, it is necessary to consider in some detail the measurement of attitudes, which is a phase of the measurement of personality. It is essential to stress at this point that the writer has selected for herself the task of measuring attitudes expressed. It may be that others will strive to discover the extent to which these expressions are a true representation of the attitudes held. The present study will not enter into this aspect of the matter.

Allport in his study of attitudes says:

The concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American social psychology. No other term appears more frequently in experimental and theoretical literature. Its popularity is not difficult to explain. It has come into favor, first of all, because it is not the property of any one psychological school of thought, and, therefore, serves admirably the purposes of selective writers. Furthermore, it is a concept which escapes the ancient controversy concerning the influence of heredity and environment. Since an attitude may combine both instinct and habit in any proportion, it avoids the extreme commitments of both the instinct-theory and environmentalism. The term, likewise, is elastic enough to apply either to the dispositions of single, isolated individuals, or to broad patterns of culture. Psychologists and sociologists, therefore, find in it a meeting point for discussion and research. This useful, one might say peaceful, concept has been so widely adopted that it has virtually established itself as the keystone in the edifice of American social psychology. (6:58)

Some writers, such as Bogardus (12), Thomas and Znaniecki (91), and Folsom (31), define social psychology as "the scientific study of attitudes."

(63:798) Murchison's handbook says:

The interest of American social psychologists in fact-collecting and statistical methods has resulted in a rapid advance in the empirical study of attitudes, with the result that attitudes today are measured more successfully than they are defined. As has often been pointed out, the situation is not unlike that in the field of intelligence testing, where practicable tests are an established fact, although the nature of intelligence is still in dispute. In recent years, there has been a decline of interest in the measurement of intelligence and an increase of interest in the measurement of attitudes. It seems as though militant testing, having won victories in one field of battle, has sought a new world to conquer. (63:828)

The field of research in personality traits in general has been engaged in by Rain (104), Droba (124), Katz and Allport (48), Fryer (33), Murphy and Murphy (64), Stagner (85), Sherman (154), Symonds (89), Vetter (161), Watson (164), and others.

Murchison says:

[There is a] distinction between attitudes of temperament and of character; the former include what psychologists have been accustomed to speak of as instincts and innate aptitudes; the latter are the acquired operations of the socialized mind - the plans, interests, and sympathies which characterize the average citizen. [There is a] distinction between natural attitudes (toward the physical environment), which are of slight interest to social psychology, and the social attitudes proper, which are far more numerous and which constitute the distinctive subject-matter of the new science. (63:803)

Bernard says more about social attitudes:

Social attitudes are individual attitudes directed toward social objects. Collective attitudes are individual attitudes so strongly interconditioned by collective contact that they become highly standardized and uniform within the group The attitude is originally a

trial response, i e., interrupted, preparatory or substitute behavior arising within an incompleated adjustment response, but it may become the permanent set of the organism. It ranges from concrete muscular responses to that which is abstract, inner or neutral Attitudes form the basis of all language and communication. In them is implicit all finished social behavior, and through them practically all social adjustment is consummated Public opinion is the highest form of collective attitudes. (8:305-306)

Thurstone admits that the principles of scale construction followed by Allport and Hartman (100) in the measurement of attitudes on public questions, were the stimulus for his work. In developing the scale Thurstone held that two opinions are close together on a scale if they are closely related in value. Thurstone realized that the judgment of only six judges, which Allport favored, is not sufficient to build a satisfactory scale. He collected the opinions of two hundred student judges. With this material he reconstructed the original frequency curve of Allport, and he found that its shape was altered through a better scaling method.

The attitude scale of Thurstone has equalized step-intervals from one attitude to the succeeding one. The scale is sufficiently reliable. The validity of the technique is apparent in the correlation between the scores and case histories which are offered by the research of Stouffer. (86)

The measurement of attitudes, which is a part of the measurement of personality, is a factor in the understanding of social behavior. This thesis aims to measure the expressed attitude of the individual. It is probable that there are some who will seek to discover to what extent the expressed attitudes are true. But this thesis holds that an individual, entirely uninfluenced, can be expected to express his true attitude freely.

It will be necessary to consider briefly:

- (1) the term attitude as used by various scholars.
- (2) The logical reasoning underlying the measurement of attitudes.
- (3) The important procedures used in the measurement of attitudes.

(1) The term attitude as used by various scholars:

In defining the term attitude we shall note first the elements which have been generally accepted in the research of Symonds. They are as follows: emotional response, feeling, generalized conduct, muscular adjustment, organic drive, verbal response, and readiness to adjust. (88:225-229)

Young says merely that an attitude is a "tendency to action." (98:138) Bain (105), on the other hand, holds that the entire response is needed in his behavioristic psychology. Bogardus claims that an attitude is "a tendency to act toward or against something in the environment which becomes a positive or negative value." (12:176) Faris says that "an attitude is a tendency to act." (128:277) Thurstone uses the term attitude to include the "sum-total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears . . . about any specific topic." He says: "It is admittedly a subjective and personal affair." (93:6-7) Droba says that an attitude denotes a "predominantly felt mental disposition to act in a certain way, for or against a definite object." (126:451)

The definition of Droba is generally recognized by many authorities; it is the definition that will be accepted here.

(2) The logical reasoning found for the measurement of attitudes:

Thurstone's research in the field of attitudes has convinced him that attitudes can be measured. He says:

It is necessary to state at the very outset just what we shall here mean by the terms "attitude" and "opinion" . . . It will be conceded at the outset that an attitude is a complex affair which cannot be wholly described by any single numerical index. For the problem of measurement, this statement is analogous to the observation that an ordinary table is a complex affair which cannot be wholly described by any single numerical index . . . Nevertheless, we do not hesitate to say that we measure the table. The context usually implies what it is about the table that we propose to measure . . . Just in the same sense we shall say here that we are measuring attitudes. We shall state or imply by the context the aspect of people's attitudes that we are measuring. The point is that it is just as legitimate to say that we are measuring attitudes, as it is to say that we are measuring tables.

The concept 'attitude' . . . denotes the sum-total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudices or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats, and convictions about any specific topic.

The concept 'opinion' will here mean a verbal expression of an attitude An opinion symbolizes an attitude. The opinion has interest only insofar as we interpret it as a symbol of attitude. It is, therefore, something about attitudes that we want to measure. We shall use opinions as the means for measuring attitudes. (93:69, passim.)

Some may hold that an individual's "action is a safer index of his attitude than what he says." To this statement, Thurstone replies that, "his actions may also be distortions of his attitude." He says:

Neither his opinions nor his overt acts constitute in any sense an infallible guide to the subjective inclinations and preferences that constitute his attitude. Therefore, we must remain content to use opinions or other forms of action merely as indices of attitude. It must be recognized that there is a discrepancy, some error of measurement as it were, between the opinion or overt action that we use as an index and the attitude that we infer from such an index. But this discrepancy between the index and "truth" is universal. When you want to know the temperature of your room, you look at the thermometer just as though . . . there were a single temperature reading which is the "correct" one for the room. . . . Let this limitation be clear. The measure-

ment of Attitudes expressed by a man's opinions does not necessarily mean the prediction of what he will do. If his expressed opinions and his actions are inconsistent, that does not concern us now because we are not setting out to predict overt conduct. We shall assume that is of interest to know what people say that they believe even if their conduct turns out to be inconsistent with their professed opinions. (ibid.:8-9)

The reason for limiting ourselves to verbal expressions of attitude is that they can be evaluated with more certainty and they are much more available than a list of overt acts. This type of correlation between attitude and overt action was the subject of a recent study by Mr. Stouffer. (Thurstone is referring to 86:263)

Thurstone asks the reader to accept his "common sense assumptions."

He says: "If the reader is unwilling to grant these assumptions, then we shall have nothing to offer him." (93:6)

(3) The important procedures used in the measurement of attitudes.

In the measuring of attitudes, we shall accept four procedures of Gardner and Lois Murphy, who are distinguished for their scientific research. Each method will be briefly considered. The first of these has a physiological basis.

The study of the physiological processes associated with personality differences has not been carried on with the vigor and enthusiasm it deserves. This is due in part to the complicated apparatus, and laboratory situation necessary, with the resulting difficulty in obtaining valid personality manifestations; and in part to the fact that, being concealed from direct observation, these processes have not been valued at their true worth as indicators of personality traits. (65:57)

The use of physiological factors to measure attitudes is based on the assumption that there exists a relationship between physical traits and mental traits. The important research of Cannon was inspired by the James-

Lang theory; it was based upon "the susceptibility of the organism to react to the effects of emotional stimuli by disturbances of the negative nervous system." (133:311)

The pioneer study of Hammett (133) endeavored to exhibit the possibility of measurement by physiological means. Hammett's investigation of the relation between emotional dispositions and body make-up is one of the significant attempts in this field. He demonstrated that nine out of seventeen persons in his investigation ranked highest in metabolic instability. He said:

[They] are persons with definitely unstable emotional make-up on the basis of clinical observations The remainder are considerably less unstable; several of those toward the bottom of the distribution are classified as apathetic or phlegmatic. Ratings and correlation devices are not attempted. The whole study is of a highly tentative sort. (65:773)

It is natural to expect a great deal from physiological methods; in fact, they must be admitted to have a *prima facie* claim to consideration For example, we must seriously consider Kretschmer's suggestion that endocrine factors produce mental characteristics just as they produce characteristic body forms (so that certain kinds of personalities go with certain kinds of bodies). But, correlations between physical traits and mental characteristics are usually so low that even if they are entirely reliable statistically, they are of practically no value in individual cases. It is not, therefore, in the physiological approach to personality that we are likely to find anything upon which we can lay much stress The trouble is that we cannot isolate and measure the very things which we know are most significant. (*ibid.*:776)

Among the techniques for making a polydimensional survey of personality, the case history, as a procedure of recording behavior, possesses definite merits. There are many forms. There is, for instance, the study of biographies, autobiographies and letters. One of the best examples is Thomas and

Znaniecki's investigation in changes in personality and social organization of Polish peasants in the United States.

In this study, Thomas and Znaniecki said:

By attitude we understand a process of individual consciousness which determines real or possible activity of the individual in the social world The attitude is thus the individual counterpart of the social value; activity, in whatever form, is the bond between them. By its reference to activity and thereby to individual consciousness, the value is distinguished from the natural thing. By its reference to activity and thereby to the social world, the attitude is distinguished from the physical state A psychological process is an attitude treated as an object in itself, isolated by a reflective act of attention, and taken first of all in connection with other states of the same individual. An attitude is a psychological process treated as primarily manifested in its reference to the social world and taken first of all in connection with some social value The psychological process remains always fundamentally a state of somebody; the attitude remains always fundamentally an attitude toward something. (91:22-23)

The authors claim that an attitude may exist independent of any specific reference.

The study of the Polish peasant presents the changes in the process of disintegration of the social organization, and in the attitude toward life. The subject's personality is viewed through a scientific collection of letters which express evidence of disintegration. The letters portray the continuous activities of the peasant. There is included an autobiography of one who realizes from experiences the changes in the process of disintegration.

The use of the diary method for studying the change in attitudes and personality traits has interested Russian and German psychologists. Among those stressing this type of procedure are Stern and Buhler. Using this

technique, research workers strive to understand the upheavals in attitude and religious belief of the growing youth.

In regard to this procedure, Murphy and Murphy (65) write:

Diaries which are used to support a number of generalizations regarding adolescence seem to us to be worth but little unless there is some way of telling to what extent the adolescents who keep diaries are representative of those who do not - the latter must surely be the vast majority. There are in fact many reasons for believing that among those who keep diaries there are an undue proportion whose contacts are unsatisfactory and whose need to "talk over" their emotional problems can be satisfied in no other way. There are . . . youngsters who simply tell what they had to eat or whether they went to the movies . . . and they would without doubt be immediately regarded by most students of diaries as unsatisfactory for psychological analysis. (*ibid.*:841)

The continuous account, the controlled diary, is of special significance for scientific research. The purpose is to give the individual a means of expressing his feelings and his private thoughts.

But the controlled diary is not as scientific in its approach to the study of attitudes as the case methods are. The cumulative process of case methods possesses the possibilities of clinical procedure, and it permits statistical treatment for the measurement of a single item of behavior which is present in a life history. It may serve as a reasonable scientific method in understanding the causes of children's reactions toward various situations. The case method, to be effective, must possess the probability of the presence of one trait which can be scientifically compared with the presence of another.

Foster's study of the effects of jealousy on the child's attitude toward life in general (130) was one of the pioneer projects of controlled

data. The subjects who were selected attended the habit clinics of Boston. The age-range of the children was from one to twelve years. In the project there were one hundred fifty children among whom fifty were jealous and one hundred were non-jealous. They represented the various racial, social, and economic conditions of Boston. Foster says:

From this study, we are led to feel that jealousy is not an 'inborn' trait, but is in general the natural product of the environmental situation in which it is the child's misfortune to be placed. It may be that in some instances there is an inherent tendency toward a neurotic make-up, which makes it easier for a given environment to arouse jealousy. (ibid.:64)

Gates' An Observational Study of Anger (131) is an analysis of the causes and duration of the emotion. Although the investigation is not a study of expressed attitudes, as one perceives in Droba's and Thurstone's research, its findings are of value. In the survey, fifty-one women students observed and recorded situations that arouse one's anger and the duration of the same. The students found 145 situations which were irritating, both physically and socially. It was recognized that fatigue is one of the sovereign elements, resulting in a predominance of the verbal response.

The work of Kambouropoulou (138) is a scientific attempt to study the controlled diary, which is a continuous account of a given individual's activities. The investigation consists of one hundred humor diaries which were secured during the course of seven school days by the students of a psychology class at Vassar. The subjects offered four thousand situations which produced a laugh. The research furnishes evidence that the various types of humor reveal themselves in the spontaneous record. Strictly, these experimental devices are not a contribution to the problem, nor do

they offer an effective solution to the problem of individual differences.

The detailed study of Chassell, The Experience Variables, is described as follows:

An approach to the complex determinate is personality formation. Assuming that personality is primarily a series of attitudes and responses to the major situations of life, and that these personality "traits" are determined by varying conditions faced, and experiences undergone by the individual, the first task seemed to consist in the attempt to characterize these typical attitudes and responses as concretely as possible, and at the same time to define the situations of which they might be functions - not only the situations of adult life, but of childhood as well. (19:2)

Chassell's research project consisted of consulting one hundred students concerning the important and necessary problems of their lives. The procedure was an endeavor to characterize a typical attitude response. All results were collected and developed into a composite inventory and scale. The scale was later modified by twenty more student subjects working in this particular field.

The result was the Experience Variable Record, which possessed every possible experience that was real and vital to one or more members of the group. It might be classified as an inventory of the important problems of later-adolescents. It is, of course, conditioned by the members, who were an American collegiate group.

The record is arranged to include the significant periods in the main life situations. The personality of the different members of a family and the social and religious standards of the three periods of life are considered. These periods are childhood, early teens, and the recent or the immediate present.

Chassell's study, which represents one of the extensive and systematic "techniques of biography," is difficult to summarize. To give an account of it, one must refer to the detailed statements which are in the questionnaire:

It may be said, however, that a constellation of attitudes having a tendency to occur together, and which might be used as justification for the concept of psychological types is found. That is, there is a degree of association among the traits described under the general headings, Enjoyment of Social Intercourse, Freedom from Hyper-Self Consciousness, Interest in Companionship. With these are also related to a lesser degree, traits under the headings, Customary Subjective Attention Level and Feeling of Satisfaction and Happiness in Life. (ibid.)

The study of personality also offers a method which is based on "impressions we make on each other." The process offers possibilities. The study which is the result of continued observation is more scientific than the conclusion which is reached through the first impression.

In a research of this nature, Pintner (151) selected twelve photographs of children whose age-range was from four to sixteen years, and whose M.A. range was from 193 to 47. All the subjects were tested on the Yerkes-Bridges point scale for intelligence. The photographs were presented to the following observers: nine physicians, fifteen psychologists, seventeen teachers, eleven students, and eleven "miscellaneous" judges. The eleven student observers were a section of a class which was attending clinics throughout the semester. The members of the "miscellaneous" group were composed of seven stenographers, one married woman, and three business men. Several of the observers realized the difficulty of the procedure, but they showed little hesitation in signifying their decisions concerning the children's photographs.

It is difficult to secure one single factor that is used as a basis in

judging the child's intelligence from a photograph. The observers may look for nothing definite, because some are governed by the appearance of the hands, face, or clothing. Others hold that a pleasant countenance portrays intelligence, and many are of the opposite point of view. There is a possibility that the observers are influenced by the resemblance of an acquaintance who is recalled by the child's photograph. The same divergent reactions would probably result if the observers were to determine a child's attitude toward kindness from photographs.

In the Pintner study, the physicians form one group of judges:

Correlations of their judgments with intelligence test scores ranged from $+.28$ to $-.21$, with an average of $+.05$; that is to say, just about what would have been expected if sheer guesses had been made without even looking at the picture. For fourteen psychologists, the correlations varied from $+.45$ to $-.63$ (average $+.18$). For seventeen teachers, they ranged from $+.37$ to $-.29$: for eleven students, from $+.29$ to $-.30$, and for eleven "miscellaneous" subjects, from $+.52$ to $-.51$. (64:579)

Cattell's pioneer experiment (115) demonstrated a difference of opinion among twelve judges in estimating the individual's various traits. It was established that the judges' opinions produced a greater uniformity in judging the traits of energy, efficiency, and perseverance. Other traits, such as unselfishness, cheerfulness, and kindness did not produce the same results. The study showed that the individual's reactions toward others produced a greater difference of opinions among judges than their reactions toward objective things.

Self-ratings are useful, according to the research of Cogan, Conklin and Hollingsworth (121). This investigation aimed to discover in what way one's introspection coincides with the opinions of his friends. In the study,

the investigators selected twenty-five juniors at college who knew one another. Every junior received during the intervals, which varied from two to four weeks, twenty-five slips of paper. Each slip had the name of one of the members of the group on it, including the name of the student who was judging. All subjects were requested to list the members in the experiment in the order of merit on the traits of intelligence, neatness, humor, vulgarity, snobbishness, conceit, beauty, refinement, and sociability. The judge ranked herself in relationship with her twenty-four co-workers. All reports were handed in, but all records were easily identified through a secret system of the investigators.

A group of the same number was selected from the seniors and they progressed in an identical manner. The arrangement gave two groups for self-judgments and for estimates of associates.

The research workers said:

In all cases the individual places herself farther from her true position than do her friends on the average. The average of all the deviations of associates, for all traits is 4.4 places; that of all the individual self-estimates is 6.1. In general the error of self-estimation tends to be half again as great as the average error of the judgments of associates. (ibid.:173-4)

Results from these experiments with methods of impression are meager, but two general hypotheses appear:

(1) That group judgments may be fairly good where individual errors tend to cancel, but if loaded with constant errors, they may be practically useless;

(2) That judgments made from behaviors are more dependable than those made from static features. In general, these hypotheses seem useful in approaching the very difficult problem of rating known individuals according to their degree of possession in some characteristic.

We turn, therefore, to a consideration of ratings based on more adequate observations. We . . . 'observed' the fact that even in relation to the study of social behavior of children, where objective-experimental and observational methods are so much more developed, ratings nevertheless fill a real need in the process of getting important data on personality Ratings are, by definition, quantitative; for, in general, what is regarded as an "all or none" affair tends, in the psychologist's eye, to be regarded as a question of degree. (65:785-786)

The observation of overt behavior is another approach to the measurement of attitudes. In this field a notable contribution is found in the work of May, Hartshorne, and their collaborators in their Character Education Inquiry (87). The investigation is a study of the behavior of hundreds of children over a period of five years. It is an attempt to measure the dozen social variables which are conditioning factors in children's honesty, their self-control, and their generosity. It says:

Master key to such a plan was found in the simple proposition that techniques for research should be worked out in actual service as instruments of research in order that their availability for this purpose might be continually tested in the exigencies of their application to actual problems. (39:8)

Murphy and Murphy urge caution:

Scales do not presuppose that all judges would agree as to the position assigned to any given attitude. The whole merit of the scale is that it presents in quantitative form a consensus of opinion in which arguable points automatically separate themselves from non-arguable points, and the sole authority is the degree of evidentness of a distinction to a large number of people. (64:621-2)

Thurstone contends that overt conduct is not always an indication of one's attitude. He holds that a conditioning factor may cause one to perform an act which does not conform to one's true attitude. (93:7).

In the Studies in Deceit (87:1), which is in many respects the most elaborate, the tests of right or wrong and social attitudes are compared with types of conduct. The Inquiry (87) shows that the investigators are in the possession of valuable material for doing this type of work, and they consider the problem from various viewpoints. First, they endeavor to find out whether or not there are any single specific items of conduct that are related to a particular type of behavior:

For example, is there any difference between cheaters, and non-cheaters, in the way in which they answer questions concerning attitudes toward cheating? The answer is 'None', at least, 'none' that we can find. If you ask fifty children who exhibited cheating in a gross way, to give you their answers to the question as to whether or not an individual is justified in cheating on an examination when everyone else is cheating, you will find that part of them will say "Yes," and part of them will say "No." In like manner, if you ask the same question of fifty perfectly honest children, that is, children on whom we have no evidence of cheating, they will give you the same kind of answers in about the proportion as the cheaters. We made similar studies of some four or five hundred questions, and the results were nearly always the same - no difference. (134:775-6)

The Inquiry is also determined to discover the relationship between knowledge in general and conduct in specific situations. The results prove that the correlations are very low. The research workers decided to assemble all the moral knowledge scores of each subject and to collect all the conduct scores. The scores were correlated in very widespread and heterogeneous population. This produced a resulting co-efficient of about .50. The Inquiry concludes that no specific relations exist between moral knowledge and conduct and only general relations are evident.

Another finding of the Inquiry is significant. It claims that charac-

ter is socially conceived as an essential condition of group functioning and is not an entity which is found in the isolated individual. It concludes that the normal unit for character education is the group or class and not, as many hold, the individual. It is also of value to know that children's social response to an ideal is strengthened by a group code.

The study, in its attempt to seek the cause and meaning of the relationship, if any, between children's knowledge and conduct, claims that students in the same classroom exhibit no general relationship between their knowledge and their conduct. The research compares also the subjects who are in different areas. It uses the same correlation table, and compares classrooms in two or three widely dissimilar sections.

The results of the investigation gives evidence of a correlation existing between knowledge and conduct which is the result to some extent of the relationship between the group code and group conduct.

When the data are considered, together with the evidence regarding high suggestibility among dishonest children, it seems legitimate to think of the dishonest child as driven by the immediate incentive of the moment. He is either honest or dishonest on the texts, depending simply upon the force of the incentive. The honest child, on the other hand, has perhaps, a self-valuing attitude upon which he may rely when confronted with a situation in which he might cheat. The presence of such inner controls has been found even at a much lower age level; it seems reasonable to guess that inner standards of behavior are elements in habit organization which are of great importance in producing at their upper levels both consistency and honesty. (65:663-664)

The Child's reputation for co-operativeness is worked out by the investigators through five test situations which include many opportunities for kindly acts without the child's waiting to be asked.

After the study of the data thus secured, total reputation scores were computed from the three devices - "check list," "guess-who test," and "conduct record." It then became possible to compare the total reputation with the total service score on the five main tests, and also to compare the child's reputation in the teacher's eyes with his reputation in the eyes of his classmates. (ibid.:668)

Throughout the research, there is little indication of unified character traits. The study does not show that children possess honesty, self-control, or charity in the same manner as the individual owns a lamp or a book. The research workers maintain that honesty is a term which indicates a type of conduct which is the result of definitely observed situations. Thus, honesty or dishonesty, is specific according to the Inquiry.

This investigation says in conclusion that its technique of observing overt behavior through the situational approach was conditioned by the following:

- (1) The observed performance tests were held in the laboratory or in the classroom, and,
- (2) Observed overt behavior tests possessed the same identical elements which are present in a child's natural environment.

Chambers (116) offers similar findings - that honesty is specific rather than general - in his investigation on attitudes toward honesty. His study presents the conclusion that there are degrees in honesty as there are in every human trait. He maintains that the complexity of a social situation gives a greater possibility for dishonesty.

Witty and Lehman say:

It is very questionable whether the responses obtained are symptomatic of the reactions that will follow apparently similar situations met in life. What appears to be a similar situation in life is often a slightly

changed one and the response, therefore, modified.

A practical difficulty encountered in trying to test character traits under laboratory conditions is the fact that serious temptations are seldom placed before the human subject. Much of the conduct disapproved by society is so tabooed that experimenters are hesitant to utilize the actual items in the laboratory. Therefore, tests which attempt to employ life situations in measuring moral stamina are very imperfect. (167:402)

It is an accepted fact that the human being is conditioned by many factors. His past experiences, environmental, and physiological condition, are governing factors in many of his reactions. Honesty will serve as an example. Thus, a child may be very honest in mathematics in the classroom, and very dishonest in his recreational games, as Witty and Lehman claim. Also, when one considers all things, placing a serious temptation before a subject merely for a scientific investigation, is a procedure that cannot be approved.

In striving for a better understanding of the various attitudes, some research workers assert that overt behavior is interrelated with verbal or "pencil-and-paper" reactions. The outstanding research workers in this field favor the following methods of obtaining such reactions:

- (a) Ranking
- (b) The Statement Scale, and
- (c) The Questionnaire.

These techniques will be briefly discussed.

A study of social attitudes which employs the Ranking Procedure has been made by Allport and Hartman (100). The scales for ranking were constructed, graded carefully, and standardized on concrete issues of current

interest. The scale presented ten to twenty opinions to the subjects for their consideration. The views of the subjects were arranged in a logical position in a scale which extended from one extreme on the issue in question to the reverse position.

Carter's investigation (114), which covers forty-eight situations, is concerned with specific social acts which are socially disapproved. The subjects were requested to indicate their disapproval by marking the most serious act "10," and the least offensive "1". The identity of the subject was concealed because the investigators were seeking honest evaluations.

Even though the best scientific procedure is observed, the paper-and-pencil technique is seriously conditioned. The conditioning factor is generally the several situations which are kept in mind before passing judgment.

Tests for measuring a given attitude are mainly handled by two methods - the Statement Scale, and the Questionnaire. We shall consider them briefly.

When research workers permit the subject to indicate approval or disapproval of a graded series of statements, this series is generally called the Statement Scale. In the procedure, the investigators try to develop a scale that possesses a statement-range from zero to one hundred per cent. In other words, the scale presents the possibility of revealing a complete absence of the attitude or one hundred per cent possession of it.

The other type of test, which is without a sliding division, is the Questionnaire. The replies to the Questionnaire indicate the attitude of the individual toward a given social condition under consideration.

One of the outstanding research workers in the development of Statement Scales for the measurement of attitudes is Thurstone. The application of Thurstone's psychological methods is most significant in the history of the measurement of attitudes. Murchison says:

To apply psychophysical methods, it is necessary first to conceive of an attitude as a "degree of affect" for or against an object or a value with which the scale is concerned. If this assumption is granted, it becomes possible to study the degree of favor or disfavor which each subject in a population has toward certain objects or values, such as the church, war moving pictures, or government ownership. Within the past few years a large number of such scales have been devised and made available for general use by Thurstone and his associates. (63:830)

Thurstone, in explaining his psycho-physical theorem, which maintains that "equally often observed differences are equal," says:

[A statement scale is] a series of opinions which are submitted to the subject for endorsement or rejection so selected that . . . a scale value can be given to each opinion. If the opinions, "A", "B", "C", "D", are four successive opinions in such an evenly graded scale about prohibition, for example, then the following conditions would be satisfied. If one person endorses opinion "A" and another person endorses opinion "B", then a group of observers should find some difficulty in saying which of the two opinions is more favorable to prohibition. Let us suppose that three-fourths of the observers would say, that opinion "A" is more favorable to prohibition than opinion "B". Then this degree of difficulty in judging which of them is the more favorable to prohibition constitutes a measure of the separation between the two statements of opinion on the Attitude Scale.

Now, if opinion "C" is so chosen that three-fourths of the observers say the "B" is more favorable to prohibition than "C", then the scale separation between "A" and "B" is the same as the separation between "B" and "C". In this manner a series of statements is selected from a large number so that the apparent increment in attitude from one statement to the next is the same for the whole series.

The statement scale is constructed by asking a group of one hundred judges to sort out a list of opinions into a series of eleven successive piles to represent attitudes from one extreme to the other. (159:255-257)

Thurstone's "attitude-scaling" technique, with some variations, has served as a procedure for others. The work of Thurstone with Chave (21) follows this general plan. The investigation of Smith conforms to this procedure on attitude toward Prohibition (84). Droba uses this procedure for measuring attitudes toward war (27). The Peterson-Thurstone scale in Motion Pictures and the Social Attitudes of Children (73) again illustrates the use of this technique.

Suggestions for uniform wording have been offered by Droba (124), Wang (162), Kulp (139), and Stagner (85). Further directions for the construction and for the use of psychophysical scales have been offered in the research work of Dockeray (26) Thurstone (157), (159), (160), and Remmers (77), (78).

Remmers and his associates in the "Studies in Attitudes" (77) have accepted Thurstone's theorem, but they say:

The essential difference of the method from that developed by Thurstone lies in the assumption that an attitude toward any one of a large group or class of objects can validly be measured by a single scale. Object is here used in the logical sense as opposed to subject. An object in this sense is any effective stimulus to which an individual may react. It may range, therefore, from a very concrete phenomenon to the most abstract idea possible. (ibid.:9)

An additional instrument for measuring attitudes is the Questionnaire. This measuring instrument offers statements of situations which are possible within the range of the subject's experiences. On such a basis, he is re-

quested to respond according to his own belief in the matter. The Questionnaire may require one of two replies, such as "yes", or "no." It is also conceivable that there may be present in the individual's reaction, conditioning factors which require more than two choices to get a correct response; but it is seldom that over five are needed in the Questionnaire.

The outstanding and recognized Questionnaire on specific social adjustment is the one developed by Allport (101). It is the revised and the standardized edition of the "Active-Passive Reaction Study," which is discussed in "Personality Traits: Their Classification and Measurement." (99)

Social behavior is not a process like the movements of cog-wheels in machinery, but a conflict and adjustment of variant attitudes of individuals. In conflicts, generally speaking, there emerge a victor and a vanquished; and this is true of the face-to-face dual reactions described. One of the two opponents becomes the master; his interest dominates, and he carries his point. The other yields and accordingly is dominated, though by no means always against his will. The former personality, we describe as ascendant. In terms of social behavior, he is active. The latter is said to be submissive; his attitude in the face-to-face relation is passive. (*ibid.*:13)

Allport's test endeavors to reveal what an individual's reaction will be in a certain social situation. His investigation (99) is composed of typical questions which cover the actual or probably experiences of an individual in his ordinary activities.

He says:

In general it may be said that the aim of personality measurements is the establishing of adjustments between an individual and his fellows which are a benefit to both. (*ibid.*:7)

Allport presents five ratings for each subject in the standardized group. Every individual rates himself, and he is also evaluated by four of

his associates. The ranking is the sum of the total scores of the expressed reactions, which exhibit the degree of the individual's ascendance or submission. In this technique, the most elusive and important problem is to limit the definition of degree.

Hurlock's research (137) considers the value of praising or reproving 408 New York City school children. In this investigation the Questionnaire technique was selected for the subjects, who were members of the third, fifth, and eighth grades. The study included two hundred fifty-seven white children, and one hundred fifty-one negro children. They were divided into three groups, and these were equated according to the best educational procedure. The children of one group were, after a test, severely reprovved and given another chance. The second section was praised. The third division, which received no directions after the test, was required to take the test again. The findings reveal that 40% of the superior children, and 35% of the average group, find reproof the stronger incentive. Of course, it is assumed that the children are giving their honest reactions to the Questionnaire when they answer the questions.

The Symonds' Questionnaire (156) consisted of several statements which were based on present social issues, for determining the liberal or conservative attitudes of students from the eighth grade in Honolulu public schools, through the senior year at the University of Hawaii. The questions were the products of five individuals whose opinions were recognized by Symonds as authoritative in the important phases of social conditions. In a technique of this type the validity of the result is conditioned by the reactions of the examiners. On many social issues, there are highly competent

individuals who offer opposing views which they uphold with some scientific evidence.

Benton discusses a similar defect:

The items in common use in Questionnaires which purport to measure "personality" . . . are subject to more than one interpretation The contention is that, since these questions have more than one possible meaning, it is likely that they appear ambiguous to many subjects and that their felt ambiguity affects the answers given.

Evidence concerning variation in interpretation has been furnished in a recent study by Landis and Katz (140). These investigators gave the Bernreuter Personality Inventory to a group of psychiatric patients and compared the answers given on the Questionnaire with data derived from the case histories of the patients. They then interviewed the patients concerning disagreements which they found between the case history data and the answers given on the Questionnaire. They reported that about ten per cent of the disagreements were apparently due to the fact that the patients had made an interpretation different from that of the investigators. (107:5)

There is a need for a Questionnaire type of scale which is based, not on preconceived notions of what does, or does not, constitute undesirable personality traits, but which will make use of the analysis of many questions which may or may not seem to be immediately relevant, and which give, when appropriately treated, results showing that these traits do tend to occur together in various widely separated groups. (140:355)

The Bernreuter Inventory (109), which was developed in a meticulous manner, has come into wide use within recent years. It exhibits only the reactions of individuals in a given condition.

The Inventory introduces no new techniques:

[It] is constructed to determine the feasibility of estimating more than a single personality trait at one time. It assumes that the integrated behavior of an individual in any situation may be interpreted from various points of view. Thus, the behavior of a man who is criticized for his actions may be symptomatic both of the extent to which

he tends to submit to authority and of the stability of his emotional control. (108:383)

The Personality Inventory has been evaluated by Lorge, who contends that "the reliability is good enough for group differentiation, but of too low an order for individual diagnosis or prognosis." (142:427)

The research of Miller, "A Critical Analysis of the Peterson-Thurstone War Attitude Scale," shows "that certain items were checked which were rather far removed in scale value from the mean scores of the subjects tested." (144:662) Miller says that a scientific attitude scale will of necessity possess items which only a pacifistic individual will check and that the non-pacifist will check only the items that indicate his attitude. In the conclusion, Miller says:

In future scale construction, it would seem essential that such instruments should be regarded as tentative, and that these should be checked against the scores of a large voting population. (ibid.:667)

The research of Murphy and Murphy (64) discusses the progress in this field. It critically evaluates and compares the various studies. It contains the following summary:

The physiological methods which seemed perhaps most exact have probably given the least information of all. The verbal methods which rely upon estimates of one sort or another seem somewhat better The limitation of verbal methods have appeared not to be the direct and intrinsic difficulties of all verbal methods; rather they seem to be difficulties which arise from particular verbal methods in particular situations. When subject to precautions and proper analysis, the combination of verbal and behavior elements may present an amazingly successful differentiation of personalities from one another, the obtained results being far more definite and reliable than could a priori be expected. Psychologists have often shown a sort of excessive humility with regard to personality-testing devices, equaled

only by the excessive confidence which some of the early mental testers showed in the absolute dependability of the Binet Scale. When at their best, personality-testing devices may do as well as intelligence tests. (64:607)

It is recognized in the various studies that measurement of attitudes is an important development in the field of character education. It is generally admitted that the verbal expression of an individual indicating what he will do in a given condition, or under certain circumstances, is his expressed attitude.

Chapter Summary

It has been shown that attitudes can be measured through their expression in beliefs and opinions by means of scales which are composed of items. On these scales the items generally range from those acceptable to the majority to those unacceptable to anyone.

On the subject of attitude measurement there has been produced a great deal of literature. In it there is to be found the ingenious procedures for weighting items that were produced by Thurstone and his followers. However, the measurements are subject to the honesty of the individuals tested. This is true of most items which ask for an agreement to an opinion. There are some scales, however, which include items that are supposed to be matters of fact.

To measure an individual's attitude toward pacifism, honesty, communism, and a myriad of things and ideas, is possible. The classification of these attitudes under logical or arbitrary schemes is not arduous. Ordinarily, the worthwhile grouping follows the cluster forms that naturally proceed from the minds and hearts of men.

Measurement of attitudes shows that attitudes of children, according to Thurstone, change more readily than those of adults. In general, there is evidence from experiment that attitudes of disfavor are moderated by familiarity with the object of disfavor.

Attitude measurement in the study of individual development is of significance; but in this field few if any comprehensive statements are yet possible.

The present study is not attempting to be a study of attitudes per se - of those inner tendencies back of conduct. It is a study of the expressed attitudes of its subjects. With the data that have been assembled in this chapter concerning the measurement of attitudes, the way has been cleared for a discussion of the procedure in the present study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PROCEDURE

Selection of the Technique to be Used

A brief survey of the various techniques used in the measurement of a single trait of character, shows that there are three major procedures that can be used in the measurement of the trait of kindness. They are:

- (1) Observation of Overt Behavior, in situations where the subject in his every day life is required to exercise the virtue of kindness;
- (2) Personal Interview, in which the subjects indicate their attitudes, or expressed attitudes, to questions concerning kindness;
- (3) The Paper-and-Pencil Technique, which includes:
 - (a) A Rating Scale, in which close observers, e.g., parents, close friends and siblings, rate the subject on the degree to which he possesses the trait of kindness;
 - (b) The Self-Rating Scale, in which the subject indicates the extent to which he expresses the trait of kindness through his endorsing of statements which have been scaled by qualified judges;
 - (c) The Situations-Test in which the subject writes his own possible reactions to a group of given situations;
 - (d) A Situations-Test in which the subjects indicate their choice among several possible reactions to a given situation. These

choices are, in the opinion of qualified judges, to vary in such a manner as to show distinct degrees in the possession of a trait.

The first two of these techniques present possibilities, but cannot be utilized in this study.

(1) The method of observing overt behavior which Hartshorne and May (40) have used, seems quite possible in a study which is undertaken by two or more research workers. The technique of observing overt behavior, when it is further developed, presents a more suitable instrument of measurement than the paper-and-pencil procedure. Although this seems a forward movement, however, it is governed by the condition that all the observations need a sufficient number of observers to make a valid study.

(2) The personal interview procedure in recent years has developed into a more exact technique. The study of Queen (153), for example, offers a procedure which enables the observer in brief interviews to report both verbal and non-verbal behavior. The data are recorded on a standard chart. Queen holds that several factors, such as change of posture, are an indispensable addition to the verbal record. The study contends that while actual difficulties, such as recalling what is said during a brief interview, are not grave, nevertheless, the developing of a technique to record all that is important in the interview is complex and difficult. Other attempts, such as Clark's (120), strive to produce more accurate data through two interviewers who obtain the same information at about the same time. The interviewers attempt to report subjects' reactions and to test their own independent pre-

dictions. They strive to predict the probable "success" of the "interviewee" at the end of the semester. The results of the study are then checked against other data. Sometimes during an interview, the Questionnaire is used as a guide. The Questionnaire when used as an instrument for the systematic arrangement of material in the hands of the interviewer, may produce a different reaction than when it is filled out by the interviewee free from all personal contacts. Further, the personal reactions of the interviewer to the interviewee are a very serious conditioning factors. It is also difficult to secure perfect responses from a large number of subjects. The interview technique cannot secure the candid expression with which anonymity is attended. Moreover, Maller (57) finds that among children there is a difference between the results of certain character tests which are signed and those in which no signature is required. Murphy and Murphy (64:590) state that the success of the study of Wells and Peck (166) among college students, is probably due to the anonymity in the Questionnaire.

(3) The next technique is the paper-and-pencil. It is necessary to discover which form of this technique is best suited to the investigation.

The Rating-List needs raters who are really free from the "halo" error as Thorndike calls it, if it is to be of any great value. Usually, however, we discover that the rater's judgment is conditioned by the general impression of the individual. If the subject is high in scholarship, the raters are likely to rate the subject high in dependability or kindness. If the subject is particularly low in one trait, the raters are inclined to rate him low in others. Thus this procedure may fail to act as a scientific approach in a study.

Direct Self-Rating on a trait gives evidence of important intrinsic limitations. This condition restricts the usefulness of the technique to certain special situations. Generally, individuals are inclined to over-rate themselves on desirable traits and to overlook undesirable ones. Thus, it appears that an attempt to obtain dependable measures on a trait requires that the approach be a life situation.

This can be provided concretely in a Situations-Test. The possibility of using Thurstone's method, which provides that a scale possess linear distance between two attitude stimuli, arises. Through such a technique, it is ostensibly possible to show objectively that two differences on a given attitude scale admit an exact mathematical relationship to one another, and, therefore, a "true" scale is constructed. But this theory has been criticized: "But every attitude of importance is to a greater or lesser extent the result of considerations peculiar to itself; and to limit scale statements to those which can be applied to all attitudes of a class is to sacrifice needed refinement to ease of obtaining data." (65:904)

(4) The Situations-Test without the use of the psycho-physical method seems to be a worthwhile technique. It is also better adapted to this subject and offers possibilities in regard to construction and administration.

The Newcomb Study (70) is interested in consistency of behavior. It strives to discover the extent to which the subjects tend to respond always positively or always negatively to a given situation. Hartshorne and May say that "character varies from situation to situation." Thus it is of paramount importance that research workers critically investigate the situations. Through this procedure, they may be able to predict the cumulative effect of

any series of situations that the child encounters.

Because of the value of a situations-test, it is used in the present study.

Procuring Material

The material for this "check-list," or "situations-test," which is concerned with the trait of kindness, must consist of actual situations which children face in their normal activities of day-by-day living.

To procure this material, the reactions of children in actual situations in the home, in school, in social and recreational activities, were observed. To secure specific situations, the opinions of experienced adults and teachers were taken into consideration, because they are in a position to offer worthwhile suggestions. From this material, the situations-test was developed.

Principles upon Which Situations were Chosen

Although the sources from which situations can be drawn are numerous, certain definite principles have been recognized in the selection. They are the following:

1. Situations have been provided which include these seven fields:

- (a) Home relationship
- (b) School activities
- (c) Leisure activities
- (d) Social activities
- (e) Economic situations
- (f) Civic situations

- (g) Appreciation of the beautiful
2. The situations present opportunities for the child to indicate his degree of kindness.
 3. The trait of kindness dominates each situation.
 4. The situations are selections from:
 - (a) The children's oral English compositions;
 - (b) Stories of heroes and heroines which the children admire;
 - (c) Material in books, magazines, and articles;
 - (d) Written compositions of children;
 - (e) Assembly work which encourages audience participation;
 - (f) School clubs' activities.

Formulating the Reactions to Each Situation

Each situation item contains five possible reactions which present different degrees of kindness. For a child this is a sufficient number to consider when he deliberates on each situation. A smaller number tends to omit types of reaction which are of importance; there is a tendency when a greater number is employed for a child to find it difficult to check discriminately the situations-item. Although Hartshorne and May, in the Character Education Inquiry (87), use a varying number of reactions to situations, yet the subjects are in higher grades.

Therefore, each situation has been provided with a set of five reactions, which contain five degrees of kindness that can be exhibited in that particular situation. One is a "fifty-fifty" reaction which has two reactions above it, and two reactions below it. The extremes denote extreme

kindness or a very unkind attitude.

At first, the test comprised one hundred situation-items. After careful consideration, fifty situation-items were selected from these, and in the third consideration, the final twenty-five situation-items were chosen. Twenty-six teachers were asked to assign score-values ranging from one (most unkind) to five (very kind), to each reaction; and they were requested to criticize the test. Each teacher worked independently in assigning the score-values.

Directions to Those Administering the Test

The person who administered the test was requested:

- (1) To give the test to all the students in her classroom;
- (2) To give the test as a part of a daily procedure without any previous preparation;
- (3) To refrain from offering any suggestions to the students while they were checking the Questionnaire.

The subjects were presented with the twenty-five situations items. It is felt that this number is sufficient to cover the average social life of the child. The entire twenty-five situations are printed together. A score was given for each one of the twenty-five items.

The tests were given the first of October, and at the end of twelve weeks. The Questionnaire was scored by the writer and the data were transferred to the master-sheets. The scores were checked twice to secure accuracy.

The directions which are found on the front page of the Questionnaire

ask for the following information:

1. Name
2. Boy or Girl
3. Grade
4. Teacher's name
5. Date
6. School
7. Date of Birth
8. City

The Question of the Weighting of the Items

The situations which are given in the test may cause some to offer the opinion that some of the situations in the test are of greater importance than others, and that they therefore deserve to receive more weight in determining the scores. Some claim that a jury of experts should give greater consideration to the weighting of these supposedly more important items. Yet Hollingsworth (45:77) shows that experts disagree with one another.

The amount of disagreement he exhibits by analyzing the following studies:

- (1) The work of Cattell, which gives the estimates of twelve scientific men who assign grades on the traits of character of five of their colleagues; and
- (2) Norsworthy's research, which shows that nine members of a college organization are similarly judged by five of their intimate associa-

tes.

The following table from Hollingsworth (45:79) presents both the cases:

Showing the Amount of Disagreement Among Judges in
Estimating, on the Basis of Acquaintance, the
Traits of Others, in Two Investigations
Relative Divergence of the Various Judges

Trait	Cattell 12 Judges	Norsworthy 5 Judges	Average of Both	Classification
Efficiency	75	92	83	
Originality	95	77	86	Class A
Perseverance	75	101	88	Median 89
Quickness	90	88	89	Close Agreement
Judgment	100	78	89	
Clearness	104	75	90	
Energy	75	109	91	
Will	85	98	91	
Mental Balance	110	81	96	Class B
Breadth	100	92	96	Median 100
Leadership	90	103	96	Fair Agreement
Intensity	85	113	99	
Reasonableness	115	96	100	
Independence	104	98	101	
Refinement	90	116	103	
Physical Health	115	92	103	
Emotions	120	91	105	
Courage	100	119	109	Class C

Trait	Cattell 12 Judges	Norsworthy 5 Judges	Average of Both	Classification
Unselfishness	115	106	110	Median 118
Integrity	104	130	117	Poor Agreement
Cooperativeness	125	113	119	
Cheerfulness	130	112	121	
Kindliness	120	125	123	

There is a strong tendency to discontinue the practice of weighting. The studies by Douglass and Spencer (125) and others conclude that the considerable amount of extra work which is necessary in deriving and using weights is unnecessary. The careful research of Odell (145), who is interested in the considerable disagreement in this field, states:

A comparison of the results obtained in the writer's two experiments with those of Corey (122) shows that they indicate much less discrepancy or disagreement between sources assigned according to different bases of weighting.... there is so little to be gained by unequally weighting the elements that it is not worth the labor of assigning such weights and computing scores for them. (145:704)

The study of Potthoff and Barnett (152) attempts to discover the effect of weighting the items. The investigation consists of a one-hundred-item test in American History which was given to four hundred high-school pupils who were studying American History. The items were weighted by ten judges. The scores were based upon the weights assigned by each judge, and were also computed by giving an equal value to every item. This procedure allows every paper to receive eleven different scores. It was found that the correlation of weighted scores and unweighted scores was .9655 and .9875.

There is another reason for the elimination of weighting. Each situation needs to be surveyed from the child's social viewpoint of his problems. Many situations which are seemingly insignificant in an adult point of view may play an important role in the life of a child. Since the child's experiences are limited in certain social fields, it is worthwhile to survey the situation as he sees it.

The Question of Ascertaining Validity and Reliability

The outstanding requirement of any achievement test in any school subject is that it must be both valid and reliable. Any test which does not possess a distinct claim to validity and reliability is questioned. A test which proposes to measure attitude or the other intangibles which are striven for by the educator, requires that the test-maker develop a satisfactory procedure, or employ some of the procedures which other workers in the same field offer. This will give some evidence of the validity and reliability of the test.

Symonds says:

In the case of achievement tests the independent criteria to be used for validation are few in number. One must usually fall back upon school marks or teachers' estimates of achievement as a criterion Good standardized tests usually contain statements . . . describing how the material for the test was gathered. One should search for such a statement, and if none is to be found he may immediately suspect the care used in constructing the test. (90:279)

This statement applies equally to personality tests. In other words, the "care" that is "used in constructing the test" is a true measuring instrument of the validity of the test. The present thesis permits the reader to form his own conclusions in the matter of the "care" which has been "used

in constructing the test."

Essentially the present study is not actually measuring attitudes, but is quantitatively evaluating expressed attitude. This is a discriminative difference.

When one claims to measure attitude there are, generally, other similar studies which may be correlated with scores which are the result of the same particular instrument of measurement. Yet Thurstone and his collaborators (93:79-80) find when they use the self-rating scale that a correlation of 0.67 exists between the scores on the scale for measuring attitude toward the Church. They say: "We have no estimate of the reliability of these self-ratings and consequently we cannot make any significant inference from this correlation." (ibid.)

However, they have two sets of measures; this study will offer no such correlation. In the study of expressed attitudes, critics may "remark that such a result expresses only 'verbal' opinion Whatever may be the force of this objection, it applies to all of the methods now existing for determining the strength and nature of personal attitudes." (63:828)

Moreover, the present study is not striving to measure the real attitude; it claims to measure only the attitude expressed.

The second important criterion of a test is its reliability, which is the consistency of an instrument of measure in measuring what it does measure. In this study, the Controlled Group demonstrates that by the use of the Spearman Rank Difference Method, a correlation between the original test and a re-test of 44 subjects is .998.

Class Room Technique

Educators admit that there is frequently a noticeable change or growth in children from the third to the fourth grade. The change, in some instances, is perceived at a later period. It usually possesses the following characteristics: the child prefers the realistic type of stories instead of fairy tales; the obedient child may show an unwillingness toward certain given directions; and he is independent and self-assertive. Therefore, it is essential that the child should realize in fourth grade the value of kindness through the medium of a number of stories that are heroic and true.

To motivate children to acquire a correct attitude toward kindness, a modified direct method is followed during a weekly character club period of thirty minutes.

At the beginning of the period, before the teacher reads the story on kindness to the pupils, the following character club procedure is observed:

1. There are on the board ten suggestive questions which apply to the story.
2. The Room President, who, with other officers, is elected by the group, calls the meeting to order.
3. The Secretary keeps the minutes of the class discussion.
4. All members of the Library Committee have charge of the Room's Kind Library Shelf. Those in charge of the library assume the responsibility of keeping a record of all suggestions which are handed in for the room code. Many suggestions are also kept in the Children's Kindness Note-books.

5. The members of the Publicity Committee record the interesting comments of their classmates for the newspaper. They also take charge of the Kindness Bulletin Board.
6. The newspaper reporters write the selections of the Publicity Committee for the newspaper. The class reporters arrange the code suggestions, which are handed in, for the Bulletin Board.
7. The Code of the Character Club is an outgrowth of the suggestions of the children.

The teacher reads a story (such as "The Roses of Saint Elizabeth") that inspires and motivates the child to imitate the heroine's kindness. After the story is read, the following procedure is used:

1. The Room President calls the various members of the class to answer the questions on the board.
2. The members of the club may ask their classmates three original questions which pertain to the story read.
3. Each student may give three comments on each question which is being discussed.
4. If time permits, the children may volunteer to present a short, original and impromptu dramatization of the story.

The modified direct method during a Character Club period encourages the social point of view. This technique helps to develop the most natural participation. It motivates the subject to develop a kindly attitude in his group activities. Through it, the student improves in his attitude, and he is impressed by the group standards. This leads the child to see that he possesses both individual and group responsibilities, which are contribu-

ting factors in developing worthy citizens.

One of the means of great value in the direct instruction which is carried on by the Character Club for developing good citizens, is the Club's simplified code. The code is an outgrowth of the various suggestions which the members of the group offer to the Library Committee for consideration. From these suggestions which are placed on the board the children's vote indorses certain ones, such as:

All good Americans are kind.

1. I will be kind at home.

2. I will be kind to my associates.

3. I will choose the good and kind and I will avoid doing that which is unkind and evil.

4. I will strive each day to perform at least one kind act.

After the selection of the Club's code by the class, the members are eager to place it in their Character Note-books.

Motivation

Motivation is especially desirable when it stresses the significance of the task for the individual. This is the type of motivation which the individual needs outside the classroom when he desires to finish a project of value. Because it is an outgrowth of the individual's own recognition of a worthy plan, it is an intelligent basis of approach. Proper motivation hinders excessive individualism and promotes social interest in every group undertaking.

In the classroom, motivation arises from the more important aspects of

the lesson. The following procedure is used:

1. The subjects develop a code of kindness in their Character Club.
2. A record of acts of kindness is kept in a note-book.
3. A committee is elected by members of the Character Club.
4. On the board, there are suggestive questions.
5. The library shelf in the room contains books which encourage kindness.
6. The subjects select a great model which will be an inspiration in their daily lives.

The chosen model must offer sufficient challenge so that the student will strive to imitate worthy character traits. He is inspired to adjust himself cheerfully to his daily environment. It is a means of adding new luster to his achievements. Many of our great leaders owe their greatness, in some respects, to the inspiration of a virtuous model. In order to motivate a desire in children to acquire kindness, stories which portray this trait are read to the subjects during the Character Education Lesson.

They are the following:

1. "The Roses of Saint Elizabeth" (28)
2. "Sally's Sash" (52)
3. "The Cratchits' Christmas Dinner" (25)
4. "Currents of Good Will" (44)
5. "The Bread Woman of New Orleans" (36)
6. "The Magic of Kindness" (3)
7. "The Pioneer's Thanksgiving" (32)
8. "A Daring Nurse" (37)

9. "The Smallest Soldier of All" (69)
10. "A Brave Rescue" (11)
11. "Nobody's Horse" (4)
12. "Ralph's New Dog" (35)

Lesson Plan

Aim: To motivate a desire in children to acquire a correct attitude toward kindness.

Method: The Direct method.

Procedure:

1. Read the story to the pupils
2. On the board will be ten suggestive questions which apply to the story.
3. The Room President will call upon members of the character class to answer questions.
4. The Room President will permit any pupil to ask three original questions and to give three comments on the questions discussed.
5. The Secretary of the room will keep the minutes of the class discussion.
6. Members of the Library Committee will have charge of the Room's Kind Library Shelf.
7. The Publicity Committee will have charge of making a code for the room.

Goal: To have children realize that the character trait of kindness is

very necessary in every citizen.

Chapter Summary

In all probability an expressed attitude is more or less a true expression of the true inherent tendency that is back of the expression. As has been stated before, however, the present study does not assume the task of measuring the true attitude; it professes only to measure the attitude expressed.

Essentially the present study is not actually measuring attitudes, but is quantitatively evaluating the expressed attitudes. This is a real difference.

The subjects in the present study were given a Situations-Test in which they indicated their choice among five possible reactions to a given situation that called for kindness. These choices, in the opinion of qualified judges, varied in such a manner as to show distinct degrees in the possession of the trait. The test was well adapted to the present study and offered possibilities in regard to construction and administration.

The number of situation-items which had to be worked out by the subjects, was twenty-five. It was felt that this number was adequate to cover the normal social life of the child. The entire twenty-five situations were printed together. A score was given for each of the twenty-five items.

In the study, the scores of the children on the test possessed a maximum of 125. Half the test, a score of 63, was a good score.

The subjects for the study were pupils in the fourth grade. In the grade, one group of students was known as the experimental group, and the

other as the Controlled Group.

The Situations-Test was administered to both the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group on the first of October. The test required a thirty-minute period for the subjects to check.

In the succeeding weeks the Experimental Group was motivated to acquire a correct attitude toward kindness through a modified direct method during a weekly Character Club period of thirty minutes. At the beginning of each Character Club meeting there were ten suggestive questions on the board from the story about kindness that the teacher read to the Club. This procedure was immediately followed by the Character Club meeting, which was conducted by the classroom chairman during a thirty-minute period.

The Controlled Group had no special attention given to the matter of kindness.

After an interval of twelve weeks the test was again given to the Experimental and the Controlled Groups for the subjects to check.

From the test there were prepared tables which present the distribution of scores for the comparison of one group with the other to determine whether or not kindness can be taught.

In the frequency distribution the first point that one discovers is the range. It is apparent in Table I (the tables are presented in full in the following chapter) that all subjects in both groups possessed a score of half the test or better. The minimum score was 66, and the maximum score was 118.

The next consideration is that the majority of the scores were found

around the median. The inference is that the subjects were average in the trait of kindness.

In the first administration of the test the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group showed a maximum of 117 and 118 respectively. However, in the first group 50% of the subjects were above the score 100; 65% of the subjects in the second group were above the score 100.

The second administration of the test showed that the maximum score was 118 for both groups. In this case, the minimum score of the Experimental Group was 72, and of the Controlled Group it was 66. Besides, the test indicated that the number of subjects in the Experimental Group that had achieved a score of 100 or over, had increased from the previous 50% to 73%, while in the Controlled Group the number of subjects that had achieved that score had constituted 65% in both administrations of the test. These results demonstrate that kindness can be taught.

The tables, when they are examined, will show other results that were obtained. Tables III to V give the scores of boys and girls according to age. Scores according to the I.Q. are found in Table XI to XVI. Subjects' scores based on their position in the family are found in Table XVII to XIX. Tables XX and XXI present scores which are estimated on the socio-economic level of the subjects.

So that the entire questionnaire can be examined, a copy of it is given now at the end of this chapter.

The data obtained from this study will be presented and analyzed in Chapter V, the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES

The data of this study present the scores of children on a test that possesses a maximum score of 125. There is no intention of the writer to establish dogmatically a standard. The reader may not agree that half the test, a score of 63, is a good score. Yet, he should be cautioned to remember that a child's experience in his social reactions is limited. Therefore, the reader, in justice, will examine each social situation from a child's point of view.

The reader who wishes to examine the entire questionnaire can find a copy of it at the end of Chapter IV.

The Method of Presenting the Scores

The original test, which required thirty minutes for the subjects to check, was given during one period. After an interval of twelve weeks the test was again presented to the pupils. From these tests the following tables have been prepared:

- (1) Tables I and II offer the distribution of scores from the first test of the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group.
- (2) Tables III and IV present the distribution of scores for both groups according to the age of the subject, in the first

administration of the test.

- (3) Tables V and VI supply the distributions of scores of the second administration of the test, according to the ages of the subjects.
- (4) Table VII furnishes the distributions of the ages of the subjects in the Experimental Group, according to the position in the family.
- (5) Table VIII provides the distributions of ages of the subjects in the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group, according to sex.
- (6) Tables IX and X give the distributions of scores of the subjects according to sex.
- (7) Table XI shows the distributions of the subjects' I.Q. for both groups, as a whole.
- (8) Table XII presents the subjects' I.Q. according to sex.
- (9) Tables XIII and XIV consist of the distributions of scores, according to the I.Q., from the first administration of the test.
- (10) Tables XV and XVI show the distributions of scores, according to the I.Q. from the second administration of the test.
- (11) Table XVII presents the distributions of the I.Q. of subjects in the Experimental Group, according to position in the family.
- (12) Table XVIII furnishes the distributions of scores on the first administration to subjects of the Experimental Group according to position in the family.

(13) Table XIX shows the distributions of scores in the second administration of the test, of subjects according to position in the family.

(14) Tables XX and XXI present the distributions of scores of subjects in the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group, according to the Socio-Economic background.

The Inferences drawn from the Frequency Distribution

In the frequency distributions, the first point that one observes is the range. It is evident in Table I that all subjects in the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group possess a score of half the test or better. The minimum score is 66, and the maximum score is 118.

The next consideration is that the modal scores and medians are usually rather close. That condition in an average class is frequent and is generally anticipated.

The third point is that the majority of the scores are found around the median. The inference is that the subjects are average in the trait of kindness accordingly as this test measures the trait.

TABLE I

Distributions of Scores of the First Test which was
Administered to the Experimental Group and the
Controlled Group

Scores	Experimental Group	Controlled Group
118-116	1	4
115-113	2	5
112-110	5	7
109-107	6	9
106-104	6	3
103-101	7	1
100-98	9	6
97-95	3	2
94-92	3	2
91-89	2	0
88-86	2	1
85-83	3	1
82-80	2	0
79-77	0	1
76-74	1	0
73-71	0	0
70-68	0	1
67-65	1	1
N	53	44
Md.	100.71	107.5
A.M.	99.226	103.636
Q.	6.9375	6.071
Maximum	117	118
Minimum	66	66

TABLE II

Distributions of Scores from the Second Administration of
the Test to the Experimental Group and
the Controlled Group

Scores	Experimental Group	Controlled Group
118-116	2	4
115-113	6	5
112-110	13	7
109-107	4	9
106-104	7	3
103-101	7	1
100- 98	5	6
97- 95	0	2
94- 92	1	2
91- 89	1	0
88-86	4	1
85- 83	1	1
82- 80	1	0
79- 77	0	1
76- 74	0	0
73- 71	1	0
70- 68	0	1
67- 65	0	1
N	53	44
Md.	105.857	107.5
A.M.	103.86	103.636
Q	7.2	6.071
Maximum	118	118
Minimum	72	66

Comparisons between the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group

It is interesting to observe that in the first administration of the test, the experimental group and the controlled Group show a maximum of 117 and 118 respectively. Yet the minimum score for both is 66. Also, in the first group 50% of the subjects are above the score 100; 65% of the subjects in the second group are above the score 100. From these scores, the median of the Experimental Group is 100.71 and that of the Controlled Group is

107.5.

In the second administration of the test the maximum score is 118 for both groups. In this case, the minimum score of the Experimental Group is 72, and that of the Controlled Group is 66. Besides, the test shows that 72% of the subjects in the first group are above the score of 100, and 65% of the second group are in the same class. Nevertheless, the median for the scores of the former is 105.85, and latter group produces a median of 107.5.

An examination of the tables will show the results that are obtained. Tables III to V give the scores of boys and girls according to age. Scores according to the I.Q. are given in Tables XI to XVI. Subjects' scores which are based on their position in the family, are found in Tables XVII to XIX. Tables XX and XXI present scores which are estimated on the socio-economic level of the subjects.

TABLE III

Distributions of the First Scores of the Experimental Group
According to the Age of the Subjects

Scores	12.2 -12.0	11.11-11.9	11.8 -11.6	11.5 -11.3	11.2 -11.0	10.11-10.9	10.8 -10.6	10.5 -10.3	10.2 -10.0	9.11-9.9	9.8 - 9.6	9.5 - 9.3	9.2 - 9.0	N
118-116											1			1
115-113											1		1	2
112-110										1	2	1	1	5
109-107									1			3	2	6
106-104											2	2	2	6
103-101										1	2	1	4	8
100- 98										1	3	1	1	8
97- 95										2	2			4
94- 92										1		1		2
91- 89													2	2
88- 86											1	1		2
85- 83											2		1	3
82- 80											1		1	2
79- 77														0
76- 74												1		1
73- 71														0
70- 68														0
67- 65												1		1
N									1	6	17	14	15	53
Med.									109.5	97.5	100.0	100.5	102.3	101.6

TABLE IV
Distributions of the First Scores of the Controlled Group
According to the Age of the Subjects

Scores	Ages	12.2 -12.0	11.11-11.9	11.8 -11.6	11.5 -11.3	11.2 -11.0	10.11-10.9	10.8 -10.6	10.5 -10.3	10.2 -10.0	9.11-9.9	9.8 -9.6	9.5 -9.3	9.2 -9.0	N
118-116											2	1	1		4
115-113						2				3	1				6
112-110							1		2	2	2				7
109-107									1	5	3	1			10
106-104	1														1
103-101										1					1
100- 98						1		1		4					6
97- 95										1	1				2
94- 92									2						2
91- 89															0
88- 86										1					1
85- 83										1					1
82- 80															0
79- 77									1						1
76- 74															0
73- 71															0
70- 68									1						1
67- 65											1				1
N	1					3	1	1	7	18	10	2	1		44
Med.	106.5					101.25	112.5	100.5	81.25	104.1	109.5	109.5	118.5		108.0

TABLE V

Distributions of the Second Scores of the Experimental Group
According to the Age of the Subjects

Scores	Ages 12.2 -12.0	11.11-11.9	11.8 -11.6	11.5 -11.3	11.2 -11.0	10.11-10.9	10.8 -10.6	10.5 -10.3	10.2 -10.0	9.11 -9.9	9.8 - 9.6	9.5 - 9.3	9.2 - 9.0	N
118-116											1		1	2
115-113									1	1	2	2	1	6
112-110									1	2	3	4	4	14
109-107											1	1	1	3
106-104										1	3	2	2	8
103-101										1	1	2	2	6
100- 98										1	3	1		5
97 -95														0
94 -92													1	1
91 -89											1			1
88 -86											1	1	2	4
85 -83													1	1
82 -80											1			1
79 -77														0
76 -74														0
73 -71												1		1
70 -68														0
67 -65														0
N									1	6	17	14	15	53
Med.									112.15	106.5	106.0	106.5	105.75	105.9

TABLE VI

Distribution of the Second Scores of the Controlled Group
According to the Age of the Subjects

Scores	Ages 12.2 - 12.0	11.11 - 11.9	11.8 - 11.6	11.5 - 11.3	11.2 - 11.0	10.11 - 10.9	10.8 - 10.6	10.5 - 10.3	10.2 - 10.0	9.11 - 9.9	9.8 - 9.6	9.5 - 9.3	9.2 - 9.0	N
118-116										2	1	1		4
115-113					2				3	1				6
112-110						1		2	2	2				7
109-107								1	5	3	1			10
106-104	1													1
103-101									1					1
100- 98					1		1		4					6
97- 95									1	1				2
94- 92								2						2
91- 89														0
88- 86									1					1
85- 83									1					1
82- 80														0
79- 77								1						1
76- 74														0
73- 71														0
70- 68										1				1
67- 65								1						1
N	1				3	1	1	7	18	10	2	1		44
Med.	106.5				101.25	112.5	100.5	81.25	104.1	109.5	109.5	118.5		108.0

Comparisons which are based on the ages of the two groups

Tables III to VI present the subjects' scores based on the age range. The age range, which is figured from the nearest birthday, is from 12 years 2 months to 9 years 5 months. These are arranged in columns. Each column represents 3 months.

On the first administration of the test to the Experimental Group, the 9.9 to 9.11 age group exhibits the lowest median. In this age group, the subjects are boys, of whom 67% are classified as only child, and of whom 16% are comprised of the youngest child of the family group.

The age group 9.6 to 9.8 produces two of the three highest scores, which belong to two boys who are classified as the youngest members of the family. On further investigation it is found that in this particular group 58% of the subjects are the youngest in their respective family, 29% are only children. The remaining 13% of the students are members of a family whose membership is composed of three or more children.

In the age group 9.0 to 9.2, the highest score belongs to a boy who is the youngest member of his family. Altogether, 53% of this age group is composed of subjects who are the youngest in the family. Members who are the only child compose 33%. Those whose families consist of three children or more are 14%.

The reader will perceive that the 10.0 to 10.2 age group has one subject who is the eldest child in the experimental group.

In the age group 9.9 to 9.11 67% of the subjects are listed as the only child. The rest of the pupils state that their families consist of two or more children.

The outstanding factor in the 9.3 and 9.5 age group is that 79% of the subjects belong to families who claim a membership of two or more children. Here the score range is from 66 to 110, and it is greater than that of any other age group.

In the Controlled Group in the first administration of the test, the lowest median is in the 10.3 to 10.5 age group. The group is composed of the following subjects: 43% are the youngest child in the family; 28% are the only child; and 29% belong to families whose membership consists of two or more children. It is an age group which consists of four boys and three girls.

The age group 9.3 to 9.5 has only one subject, whose score is 116; the age group 9.6 to 9.8 has two subjects.

The greatest range of scores, which is from 69 to 118, belongs to the 9.9 to 9.11 age group. Of this group 20% are the youngest child in the family, and 80% of the subjects' families consist of two or more children. The subjects are seven boys and three girls.

The age group 10.0 to 10.2 exhibits the greatest number of subjects, of whom the majority are members of families whose membership consists of two or more children.

The remaining age groups have from one to three subjects, who present a tendency to exhibit more kindness with the increase of the chronological age. This growth may be the result of greater experience and of the direct social training which is acquired in a child's leisure social activities.

In the second administration of the test to the Experimental Group one can perceive an increase in the age group median scores, although Table

V shows a slight decrease in the median of the age range 9.6 to 9.8 in its relation to the other age groups. Yet there is a noticeable rise in the median score of the 9.9 to 9.11 group.

The Controlled Group's scores in the second administration of the test coincide with those in the first administration.

A thorough study of the data which are set out in this chapter produces the following conclusions:

- (1) The increase in chronological age is generally accompanied by an improvement in the subject's attitude toward kindness.
- (2) The greatest increase in median, the increase in the age group 9.9 to 9.11 is probably in a large measure the result of the subjects' becoming more homogeneous. Of this group 67% are classified as the only child. The subjects of this group, members of the various committees in a Character Club, realize the need of kindness.
- (3) The subjects who are ranked as members of families whose membership consists of two or more children, present the next greatest increase in median.
- (4) Thus, children who work as a group tend probably to be homogeneous with respect to the trait of kindness.

TABLE VII

Distributions of the Ages (in the Experimental Group) of the Only Child (O.C.);
The Youngest Child in the Family (Y.C.); The Eldest Child in a Family (E.C.);
The Middle Child in a Family (M.C.); The Child Whose Family Consists
of Two or More Children (T.C.)

Ages	<u>O.C.</u>			<u>Y.C.</u>			<u>E.C.</u>			<u>M.C.</u>			<u>T.C.</u>		
	<u>B</u>	<u>G</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>G</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>G</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>G</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>G</u>	<u>Total</u>
10.2 -10.0													0	1	1
9.11- 9.9	4	0	4	1	0	1							2	0	2
9.8 - 9.6	2	2	4	6	5	11	1	1		1	1		6	8	14
9.5 - 9.3	3	0	3	5	2	7	2	2					5	5	10
9.2 - 9.0	2	3	5	5	3	8	1	1					7	3	10
N	11	5	16	17	10	27	1	3	4	1	1		20	17	37
Md.	9.57	9.25	9.5	9.4	9.5	9.43	9.2	9.5	9.35	9.8	9.8		9.38	9.5	9.455
A.M.	9.71	9.44	9.63	9.55	9.56	9.55	9.2	9.6	9.5	9.8	9.8		9.53	9.64	9.67
Maximum	9.10	9.7	9.10	9.9	9.8	9.9	9.1	9.7	9.7	9.6	9.6		9.9	10.1	10.1
Minimum	9.1	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.1	9.6	9.6		9.0	9.0	9.0

Comparison of Age with Position in the Family of Subjects in the Experimental Group

Within the Experimental Group there are subjects who possess a definite "position in the family." In order to compare the age of the subjects with the "position in the family," five groups are defined:

- (1) The only child;
- (2) The youngest child in families of more than one;
- (3) The eldest child in families of more than one;
- (4) The middle child in families of more than two; and
- (5) The child in families of more than two children.

In Table VII, it is found that the following age-range medians coincide:

- (1) The total number of subjects who are defined as the only child;
- (2) The girls who are the youngest child in the family;
- (3) The girls who are the eldest in the family; and
- (4) The girls who are members of families of two or more children.

The age-range of the total number of the only child and the total number of the youngest child in the family coincide.

The age-range of girls in the following groups coincide:

- (1) The total number who are the only child;
- (2) The total number who are the youngest in the family; and
- (3) Those who are the eldest child in families of more than one.

In the boys' age-range, the following groups coincide:

- (1) The only child in the family;
- (2) The youngest child in the family;
- (3) Families which consist of two or more children.

From these data, then, the conclusion may be drawn that the age-range of the youngest child and the only child are closely related; the age-range of boys who are the only child, the youngest child, and in families of more than one, are identical; and the age-range of girls who are the only child, the youngest child, and the eldest child are similar.

One possible explanation may be that the subjects have been students at the same school since kindergarten, and they advance yearly. Or, it may be that it is a natural, general tendency of the children of the community.

TABLE VIII

Distributions of the Ages of the Subjects in the
Experimental Group and the Controlled Group,
According to Sex

Age	<u>Experimental Group</u>			<u>Controlled Group</u>		
	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>Total</u>
12.2 - 12.0				1	0	1
11.11- 11.9						
11.8 - 11.6						
11.5 - 11.3						
11.2 - 11.0				3	0	3
10.11-10.9				1	0	1
10.8 - 10.6				1	0	1
10.5 - 10.3				4	3	7
10.2 - 10.0	0	1	1	8	10	18
9.11 - 9.9	6	0	6	7	3	10
9.8 - 9.6	8	10	18	1	1	2
9.5 - 9.3	8	5	13	0	1	1
9.2 - 9.0	9	6	15	0	0	0
N	31	22	53	26	18	44
Md.	9.4	9.5	9.46	10.1	10.0	10.1
A.M.	9.6	9.58	9.59	10.2	10.3	10.3
Maximum	9.10	10.1	10.1	12.2	10.5	12.2
Minimum	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.8	9.5	9.5

Comparisons on the Basis of Chronological Age according to Sex

Table VIII offers a study of ages and sexes. The age-range is from 10.1 to 9.0 in the Experimental Group. The Controlled Group has an age-range from 12.2 to 9.5. In both groups, the ages of the boys, girls, and their total are given in parallel columns. The age-range of 9.6 to 9.8 claims 18 subjects in the Experimental Group. The same number of students is found in the age-range of 10.0 to 10.2 in the Controlled Group.

The boys in the Experimental Group are the younger group, and the boys in the Controlled Group present the greatest age-range.

The girls in the Experimental Group are the younger of the two groups of girls. The Controlled Group shows that 56% of their cases fall within the age-range of 10.0 to 10.2

The conclusions which one may make are:

- (1) The boys are generally younger or older than the average student.
- (2) The girls tend more to coincide with the median of their respective groups.
- (3) The boys constitute 59% of the total of the two groups.

TABLE IX

Distributions of the Scores from the First Test which was Administered
to the Subjects in the Experimental Group and the
Controlled Group According to Sex

Scores	Experimental Group			Controlled Group		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
118-116	1	0	1	2	2	4
115-113	1	1	2	3	2	5
112-110	2	3	5	4	3	7
109-107	5	1	6	3	6	9
106-104	3	3	6	2	1	3
103-101	5	2	7	1	0	1
100- 98	3	6	9	5	1	6
97- 95	3	0	3	0	2	2
94- 92	2	1	3	2	0	2
91- 89	1	1	2	0	0	0
88- 86	2	0	2	1	0	1
85- 83	1	2	3	0	1	1
82- 80	0	2	2	0	0	0
79- 77	0	0	0	1	0	1
76- 74	1	0	1	0	0	0
73- 71	0	0	0	0	0	0
70- 68	0	0	0	1	0	1
67- 65	1	0	1	1	0	1
N	31	22	53	26	18	44
Md.	101.4	97.0	100.71	105.0	108.5	107.5
A.M.	99.818	99.818	99.226	101.307	106.833	103.656
Q.	6.737	6.5	6.712	8.2875	4.5	6.071
Maximum	117	114	117	118	116	118
Minimum	66	80	66	66	83	66

TABLE X

Distributions of the Scores from the Second Administration
of the Test to the Experimental Group and the
Controlled Group According to Sex

Scores	Experimental Group			Controlled Group		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
118-116	2	0	2	2	2	4
115-113	3	3	6	3	2	5
112-110	9	4	13	4	3	7
109-107	3	1	4	3	6	9
106-104	2	5	7	2	1	3
103-101	5	2	7	1	0	1
100- 98	3	2	5	5	1	6
97- 95		0	0	0	2	2
94- 92		1	1	2	0	2
91- 89	0	1	1	0	0	0
88- 86	3	1	4	1	0	1
85- 83		1	1	0	1	1
82- 80		1	1	0	0	0
79- 77				1	0	1
76- 74				0	0	0
73- 71	1	0	1	0	0	0
70- 68				1	0	1
67- 65				1	0	1
N	31	22	53	26	18	44
Md.	107.7	104.7	105.857	105.0	108.5	107.5
A.M.	104.61	102.54	103.86	101.307	106.833	103.636
A.	3.291	8.8125	7.125	8.2875	4.5	6.071
Maximum	118	115	118	118	116	118
Minimum	72	82	72	66	83	66

Comparisons between the Groups on the Basis of Scores According to Sex

Tables IX and X present distributions of scores arranged in parallel columns according to the groups and sexes.

One of the first points to be perceived is that the boys of both groups have the highest score in both administrations of the test. Yet, within the boys' scores, there is also found the lowest score. None of the subjects' scores are less than half the possible score on the test. It is a coincidence that in both groups in the first administration of the test there are two boys who have a score below 77.

The second point is the condition that is found in the girls' group. Although the girls start with a higher score at the lower range of the column, they do not pass the boys' highest score.

Another point is that, in general, the model scores are rather close to the medians. This is a natural situation because the students are from the same community, and enjoy the same general advantages.

In the fourth place, the tables demonstrate that the great majority of the scores are found around the median. This indicates that the subjects as a whole are average in the matter of kindness.

The conclusions which one may make from Tables IX and X, are:

- (1) The boys' scores indicate a greater tendency, at this grade-level, toward kindness.
- (2) Girls as individuals do not achieve low scores on kindness.

- (3) Children, as a whole, strive to acquire the trait of kindness.
- (4) The scores give evidence that the direct method of a Character Club, as revealed in the Experimental Group, is an effective technique for improving children's attitudes toward kindness.

TABLE XI

Distribution of the I.Q.'s for the Experimental
Group and the Controlled Group

I.Q.	Experimental Group	Controlled Group
124-122	0	6
121-119	0	2
118-116	2	3
115-113	6	5
112-110	6	4
109-107	8	2
106-104	8	5
103-101	10	4
100- 98	3	3
97- 95	4	3
94- 92	4	2
91- 89	0	2
88- 86	1	0
85- 83	1	0
82- 80	0	2
79- 77	0	0
76- 74	0	0
73- 71	0	0
70- 68	0	0
67- 65	0	1
N	53	44
Md.	104.68	106.5
A.M.	104.377	106.159
Q	4.481	8.5
Maximum	118	124
Minimum	84	67

TABLE XII

Distributions of the I.Q.'s for the Boys and Girls of the
Experimental Group and the Controlled Group

I.Q.	Experimental Group			Controlled Group		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
124-122				5	1	6
121-119				0	2	2
118-116		2	2	1	2	3
115-113	4	2	6	3	2	5
112-110	4	2	6	2	2	4
109-107	7	1	8	1	1	2
106-104	3	5	8	3	2	5
103-101	5	5	10	2	2	4
100- 98	1	2	3	2	1	3
97- 95	3	1	4	2	1	3
94- 92	2	2	4	1	1	2
91- 89				2	0	2
88- 86	1	0	1	0	0	0
85- 83	1	0	1	0	0	0
82- 80				1	1	2
79- 77				0	0	0
76- 74				0	0	0
73-71				0	0	0
70- 68				0	0	0
67- 65				1	0	1
N	31	22	53	26	18	44
Md.	106.0	104.1	104.68	105.5	109.5	106.5
A.M.	104.32	104.861	104.377	105.115	107.833	106.199
Q	4.965	4.86	4.481	9.125	2.25	8.5
Maximum	115	118	118	123	124	124
Minimum	84	92	84	67	80	67

Comparison between Groups on the Basis of the I.Q.

Tables XI and XII present the frequency distributions of the I.Q. for both the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group as a unit, and also according to sex.

Table XI provides the following data:

- (1) The I.Q. range in the Experimental Group is from 118 to 84, with the majority of the scores around the median.
- (2) In the Controlled Group the I.Q. range is from 124 to 67.
- (3) In general the model scores are close to the medians in both groups.

Table XII shows that of all the children in the Experimental Group, 75% (consisting of 43% boys and 32% girls) have I.Q. scores of 100 or above. Of all the boys in this group 74% have I.Q. scores of 100 or above; of all the girls in this group 77% have I.Q. scores of 100 or above.

Table XII also shows that of all the children in the Controlled Group, 72% (consisting of about 40% boys and about 31% girls) have I.Q. scores of 100 or above. Of all the boys in this group 65% have I.Q. scores of 100 or above; of all the girls in this group 77% have I.Q. scores of 100 or above.

Table XII and its data, then, give rise to the following conclusions:

- (1) Both the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group are composed of normal subjects.
- (2) The I.Q. scores of the girls in both groups, as they are compared with their own respective groups of girls, are identical.
- (3) The I.Q. scores of the girls in both groups, as they are compared with their own respective divisions, are rather close.

- (4) The I.Q. scores of the boys in both groups, as they are compared with their own respective divisions, are comparatively close.
- (5) In both groups, the per cent of girls who are classified with an I.Q. of 100 or above is greater than the boys.

TABLE XIII

Distributions of the Scores of the Experimental Group from the
First Administration of the Test, According to the I.Q.

Scores	I.Q.	124-122	121-119	118-116	115-113	112-110	109-107	106-104	103-101	100- 98	97- 95	94- 92	91- 89	88- 86	85- 83	82- 80	79- 77	76- 74	73- 71	70- 68	67- 65	N
118-116								1														1
115-113					1				1													2
112-110			1			2			1						1							5
109-107					2	1	1	1				1										6
106-104			1		1	1		1	1		1											6
103-101						1	3	1	2													7
100- 98				1			2	2	2	1		1										9
97- 95							1					1		1								3
94- 92								1	1	0	0	1										3
91- 89							1			1												2
88- 86									1	0		1										2
85- 83						1			1	1		0										3
82- 80				1							1	0										2
79- 77																						0
76- 74											1											1
73- 71																						0
70- 68																						0
67- 65								1														1
N			2	6	6	8	8	8	10	3	3	5	0	1	1							53

TABLE XIV

Distribution of the Scores from the First Administration of the Test
to the Controlled Group According to the I.Q.

Scores	I.Q.	124-122	121-119	118-116	115- 113	112-110	109-107	106-104	103-101	100- 98	97- 95	94- 92	91- 89	88- 86	85- 83	82- 80	79- 77	76- 74	73- 71	70- 68	67- 65	N
118-116		2			2																	4
115-113		1	1		2	1																5
112-110		2				1	2		1		1											7
109-107		1	1	1	1	2		2	1													9
106-104								1		1		1										3
103-101													1									1
100- 98				1				1	1	1	1	1										6
97- 95				1							1		0									2
94- 92								1				1										2
91- 89																						0
88- 86										1												1
85- 83																1						1
82- 80																	1					0
79- 77																						1
76- 74																						0
73- 71																						0
70- 68									1													2
67- 65																					1	1
N		6	2	3	5	4	2	5	4	3	3	2	2	0	0	2				1		44

TABLE XV

Distribution of Scores of the Experimental Group from the
Second Administration of the Test According to the I.Q.

Scores	I.Q.	124-122	121-119	118-116	115-113	112-110	109-107	106-104	103-101	100- 98	97- 95	94- 92	91- 89	88- 86	85- 83	82- 80	79- 77	76- 74	73- 71	70- 68	67- 65	N
118-116				1				1														2
115-113			1	0	0			1	2		1				1							6
112-110			1	3	4	2		1	1			1										13
109-107						2			2													4
106-104						1	2	2	2													7
103-101				1			1		1	1		2		1								7
100- 98							1	2	1			1										5
97- 95																						0
94- 92										1												1
91- 89										1												1
88- 86						1			1		2											4
85- 83				1								0										1
82-80											1	0										1
79- 77																						0
76- 74																						0
73- 71								1														1
70- 68																						
67- 65																						
N			2	6	6	8	8	8	10	3	4	4	0	1	1							53

TABLE XVI

Distributions of the Scores from the Second Administration of the Test
to the Controlled Group According to the I.Q.

Scores	I.Q. 124-122	121-119	118-116	115-113	112-110	109-107	106-104	103-101	100-98	97-95	94-92	91-89	88-86	85-83	82-80	79-77	76-74	73-71	70-68	67-65	N
118-116	2			2																	4
115-113	1	1		2	1																5
112-110	2				1	2		1		1											7
109-107	1	1	1	1	2		2	1													9
106-104							1		1		1										3
103-101												1									1
100-98			1				1	1	1	1	1										6
97-95			1							1		0									2
94-92							1					1									2
91-89																					0
88-86									1												1
85-83															1						1
82-80																1					0
79-77																					1
76-74																					0
73-71																					0
70-68								1													1
67-65																				1	1
N	6	2	3	5	4	2	5	4	3	3	2	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	44

Comparisons of the Scores on the Various I.Q.'s

Tables XIII, XIV, XV, and XVI present the frequency distribution of scores according to the subjects' I.Q.

The Experimental Group gives the following data from the first administration of the test:

1. The I.Q. range of 109 to 98 includes 55% of the group.
2. The I.Q. range of 118 to 110 includes 26%.
3. The I.Q. range of 97 to 84 contains 19% of the subjects.

The Controlled Group gives the following data from the first administration of the test:

1. The I.Q. range of 109 to 98 contains 31% of the group.
2. The I.Q. range of 118 to 110 contains 28%.
3. The I.Q. range of 124 to 119 contains 18%.
4. The I.Q. range of 97 to 65 contains 23%.

In this group, the subjects who possess the highest I.Q. score are the ones who scored highest in kindness; and the ones who exhibit the minimum I.Q. score registers the minimum score in kindness.

The second administration of the test to both groups presents frequency distributions which indicate a definite tendency toward kindness.

From these data, then, the conclusion may be drawn that the subjects with the higher I.Q. express more kindness; those with the lower I.Q. manifest less kindness; and the I.Q. range of 109 to 98 contains one-half or better of the entire groups of subjects.

TABLE XVII

Distribution of the I.Q.'s of the Subjects (in the Experimental Group)
Who Are: The Only Child (O.C.); the Youngest Child in the Fam-
ily (Y.C.); the Eldest Child in the Family (E.C.); the Mid-
dle Child in a Family (M.C.); the Child whose Family
Consists of Two or More Children (T.C.)

I.Q.	<u>O.C.</u>			<u>Y.C.</u>		
	B	G	Total	B	G	Total
118-116					1	1
115-113				4	1	5
112-110	0	1	1	3	1	4
109-107	3	1	4	2	0	2
106-104	1	0	1	2	2	4
103-101	2	1	3	3	3	6
100- 98	0	0	0	1	2	3
97- 95	2	1	3	1	0	1
94- 92	2	1	3	0		
91- 89	0	0	0			
88- 86	1	0	1			
85- 83	0	0	0	1		1
N	11	5	16	17	10	27
Md.	98.25	99.0	98.5	107.75	103.5	105.375
A.M.	97.9	102	100.5	105.58	105.6	105.77
Maximum	109	112	112	115	118	118
Minimum	88	93	88	84	98	84

I.Q.	<u>E.C.</u>			<u>M.C.</u>			<u>T.C.</u>		
	B	G	Total	B	G	Total	B	G	Total
118-116				1		1		2	2
115-113	0	1	1				4	2	6
112-110	1	0	1				4	1	5
109-107							4	0	4
106-104		1	1				2	5	7
103-101		1	1				3	4	7
100- 98							1	2	3
97- 95							1	0	1
94- 92							0	1	1
91- 89									
88- 86									
85- 83							1	0	1
N	1	3	4	0	1	1	20	17	37
Md.	111	105.0	106.5	0	118	118	108	104.4	105.8
A.M.	111	107.0	110	0	117	117	107.1	105.7	106.5
Maximum	111	114	114	0	117	117	115	118	118
Minimum	111	103	103	0	117	117	84	92	84

Comparisons of Subjects' I.Q. According to the Position in the Family

A The highest I.Q. in this group belongs to four girls:

1. The middle child in a family of more than two children.
2. One girl who is the youngest child in a family of more than one.
3. Two girls whose family consists of two or more children.

The lowest I.Q. is claimed by two boys:

1. One boy whose family consists of two or more children.
2. One boy who is the youngest child in a family of more than one.

The reader will observe that the I.Q. range of 109 to 98 contains one-half or better of the entire group of subjects.

The conclusions which one may draw, somewhat tentatively, since the third (the eldest child), and fourth (the middle child) groups are so few in number, are much the same as those arising from the comparisons between groups on the basis of the I.Q.

TABLE XVIII

Distributions of the Scores of the Subjects in the Experimental Group
in the First Administration of the Test, who are: the Only Child
(O.C.); the Youngest Child in the Family (Y.C.); the Eldest
Child in the Family (E.C.); the Middle Child in the Fam-
ily (M.C.); the Child Whose Family Consists of Two
or More Children (T.C.)

Scores	O.C.			Y.C.		
	B	G	Total	B	G	Total
118-116				1		1
115-113				1	1	2
112-110		1	1	2	2	4
109-107	1		1	4	0	4
106-104				2	2	4
103-101	3	1	4	2	0	2
100- 98	1	1	2	1	2	3
97- 95	2		2	1		1
94-92	2		2			0
91-89					1	1
88-86	1		1	1		1
85- 83		1	1	1	1	2
82- 80		1	1		1	1
79- 77						
76- 74	1		1			
73-71						
70- 68						
67- 65				1		1
N	11	5	16	17	10	27
Md.	96.75	87.0	97.5	105.75	100.5	104.62
A.M.	95.25	95.4	95.62	101.8	100.2	101.11
Q	4.567	9.0	6.75	5.53	10.125	7.96
Maximum	107	100	110	117	114	117
Minimum	76	81	76	66	80	66

TABLE XVIII
(Continued)

Scores	<u>E.C.</u>			<u>M.C.</u>			<u>T.C.</u>		
	B	G	Total	B	G	Total	B	G	Total
118-116							1		1
115-113							1	1	2
112-110							2	2	4
109-107							4	1	5
106-104	1		1	0	1	1	3	3	6
103-101			0				2	1	3
100- 98		2	2				2	5	7
97- 95			0				1	0	1
94- 92		1	1				0	1	1
91- 89							0	1	1
88- 86							1	0	1
85- 83							1	1	2
82- 80							0	1	1
79- 77									0
76 - 74									0
73- 71									0
70- 68							1	0	1
67- 65	0	0		0	0	0	1	0	1
N	1	3	4	0	1	1	20	17	37
Md.	106.5	95.25	96	0	106.5	106.5	103.5	97.2	102.0
A.M.	105	97.0	98	0	105	105	102.75	97.18	100.62
Q		3.0	3.0				5.625	5.80	5.27
Maximum	106	100	106	0	106	106	117	114	117
Minimum	106	94	94		106	106	66	80	66

TABLE XIX

The Distribution of the Scores from the Second Administration of the Test in the Experimental Group of the following subjects: The Only Child (O.C.); the Youngest Child in the Family (Y.C.); The Eldest Child in the Family (E.C.); the Middle Child in the Family (M.C.); The Child whose Family Consists of Two or More Children (T.C.)

66

Scores	B	O.C. G	Total	B	Y.C. G	Total
118-116				2		2
115-113				3	3	6
112-110	1	1	2	6	1	7
109-107	3		3	0	1	1
106-104	1	1	2	1	1	2
103-101	3	1	4	1		1
100- 98	1		1	2	1	3
97- 95						
94- 92					1	1
91- 89					1	1
88- 86	2	1	3	1		1
85- 83					1	1
82- 80		1	1			
79- 77						
76- 74						
73- 71				1		1
70- 68						
67- 65						
N	11	5	16	17	10	27
Md.	103.0	90.0	102.75	107.75	106.5	110.14
A.M.	101.72	96.6	100.31	106.23	103.2	105.11
Q	8.5	11.25	9.50	5.75	10.0	8.43
Maximum	111	112	112	118	115	118
Minimum	88	82	82	72	85	72

TABLE XIX
(Continued)

Scores	<u>E.C.</u>			<u>M.C.</u>			<u>T.C.</u>		
	B	G	Total	B	G	Total	B	G	Total
118-116							2	0	2
115-113							3	3	6
112-110	1		1	0	1	1	9	3	11
109-107			0					1	1
106-104		1	1				1	4	5
103-101		1	1				2	1	3
100- 98		1	1				2	2	4
97- 95									0
94- 92								1	1
91- 89								1	1
88- 86							1	0	1
85- 83								1	1
82- 80									0
79- 77									
76- 74									
73- 71							1	0	1
70- 68									
67- 65									
N	1	3	4	0	1	1	20	17	37
Md.	112.5	102.0	103.5	0	112.5	112.5	107.625	105.375	109.55
A.M.	111	102.0	104.25	0	111.0	111.0	106.50	104.11	105.405
Q	0	0	3.0	0	0	0	6.0	2.55	5.70
Maximum	110	106	110	0	110	110	118	115	118
Minimum	110	98	98	0	110	110	72	85	72

Comparison of Scores among Subjects in the Experimental Group According to their Position in the Family

In order to compare the scores with regard to the position in the family, parallel columns have been drawn to record the scores. The groups are so arranged because thus one may find some important differences. Any similar arrangements might be equally useful to present the general trend.

In the first administration of the test, there is a general trend of all the groups toward kindness. Of these, the subjects who are the youngest in the family, and those whose families consist of two or more children, lead the others.

The majority of the scores are found in the score-range of 112 to 98.

In the second administration of the test, dealt with in Table XIX, there is the same general trend in all groups, with the same subjects leading the others.

The conclusions, though somewhat tentative, because there are so few in number in the third and fourth groups, are as follows:

1. The highest and the lowest scores are attained by boys who are members of families of two or more children.
2. The girls start with higher scores, but they do not reach the maximum score of their respective groups.
3. All groups are represented in the score-range 110 to 112 in the second administration of the test, but in the first administration of the test no one score-range possesses a subject from every group.
4. The range of the frequency distribution is the greatest among the subjects who are members of families of two or more children.

5. The subjects who are members of families of two or more children tend to express more kindness.
6. The only child's, the eldest child's, and the middle child's maximum scores are within the same score-range in the second administration of the test. This is an indication that the realization of the need of kindness will inspire children to value and to practice it.

The Socio-Economic Background

It is a recognized fact that one of the important conditioning factors in a child's social reaction is the influence of the home. It is necessary, therefore to ascertain among other factors, the socio-economic level of the family. To procure this, a Questionnaire has been used.

The Questionnaire

Each subject was given a Questionnaire which attempted to secure facts concerning the home background of the individual. It reads as follows:

Please give the following information and return immediately:

Name of Child:	Address	Telephone
Father's name:		
Mother's name:		
Father's place of birth:		
Mother's place of birth:		
Child's place of birth:		
Father's occupation:		
Mother's occupation:		

Child's date of birth:

Language spoken at home:

Names and ages of brothers:

Names and ages of sisters:

When the Questionnaire was returned, the occupational classification of the Character Education Inquiry was followed.

The occupational levels are:

Group I	Occupants of professional positions, executives.
Group II	Artisan proprietors, foremen, highly skilled laborers.
Group III	Skilled laborers, such as plumbers, electricians, plasterers.
Group IV	Semi-skilled laborers.
Group V	Unskilled laborers. (41:340)

An analysis of both groups, from both administrations of the test is presented in Tables XX and XXI.

The number of homes that the Questionnaire covers is ninety-six.

Although there are ninety-seven children, two children in the Controlled Group are from the same home.

Geographically, the homes are within the school district. The greater number of these homes are owned by the parents of the subjects.

TABLE XX

Distribution of the First Scores According to the Socio-Economic Background of
the Subjects in the Experimental Group and in the Controlled Group Whose
Parents' Occupations are:

Scores	<u>Group I</u>		<u>Group II</u> Artisans		<u>Group III</u>		<u>Group IV</u>		<u>Group V</u>	
	Professional Positions or Executive		Proprietors Foremen Highly-skilled Laborers		Skilled Laborers Plumbers Electricians Plasterers		Semi-Skilled Laborers		Unskilled Laborer	
	<u>Exper.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Cont.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Exper.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Cont.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Exper.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Cont.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Exper.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Cont.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Exper.</u> <u>Group</u>	<u>Cont.</u> <u>Group</u>
118-116		3		2	1					
115-113		3		3	1				1	
112-110			1	1	3		1	3		1
109-107	1	1	1	2		1	3	5	2	
106-104			1	1	1		4	1	1	1
103-101							4	1	1	
100- 98	1			3	5		2	2	1	1
97- 95					1			1	2	
94- 92	2		1	1				2		
91- 89	1						1			
88-86	1						1			1
85- 83					1		2	1		
82- 80					1		1			
79- 77								1		
76- 74			1							
73- 71										
70- 68								1		1
67- 65					1					
N	6	7	5	13	15	1	19	18	8	5

Scores are the result of the first administration of the test.

TABLE XXI

Distribution of Scores According to the Socio-Economic Background of the Subjects in the
Experimental Group and the Controlled Group in the Second Administration of the
Test Whose Parents' Occupations Are:

Scores	<u>Group I</u>		<u>Group II</u> Artisans		<u>Group III</u>		<u>Group IV</u>		<u>Group V</u>	
	Professional Positions or Executive		Proprietors Foremen Highly-Skilled Laborers		Skilled Laborers Plumbers Electricians Plasterers		Semi-Skilled Laborers		Unskilled Laborers	
	<u>Exper.</u>	<u>Cont.</u>	<u>Exper.</u>	<u>Cont.</u>	<u>Exper.</u>	<u>Cont.</u>	<u>Exper.</u>	<u>Cont.</u>	<u>Exper.</u>	<u>Cont.</u>
118-116		3		2	1				1	
115-113		3		3	3		1		1	
112-110	1		2	1	1		8	3	2	1
109-107		1	1	2	1	1	2	5		
106-104				1	2		3	1	2	1
103-101	2				3		1	1	1	
100- 98	1		1	3	1		1	2	1	1
97- 95								1		
94- 92	1			1				2		
91- 89							1			
88- 86	1		1		1		1			1
85- 83					1			1		
82- 80							1			
79- 77								1		
76- 74					0					
73- 71					1					
70- 68								1		1
67- 65										
N	6	7	5	13	15	1	19	18	8	5

Comparison between the Various Socio-Economic Levels

Tables XX and XXI exhibit the frequency distributions according to the subjects' social levels.

Table XX is based on the first administration of the test, and Table XXI is based on the second administration.

Group IV of Table XX contains the largest number of subjects. In the Experimental Group 36% are on this socio-economic level. In the Controlled Group 40% are in this class. The maximum scores in this Group IV are the same for both the Experimental Group and the Controlled Group.

The favored group, economically, is Group I. This division, in the Experimental Group, includes 11% of the class, with a score-range of 86 to 109 in the first administration of the test. In the second administration of the test, they have a range of 86 to 112. In the same comparison, in the Controlled Group, there are 18% of the class, with a score-range of 107 to 118 in both administrations of the test.

Group II represents 10% of the Experimental Group and 29% of the Controlled Group. The former exhibits a score-range of 74 to 112 in the first test; the latter a score-range of 92 to 118. In the second administration of the test, the first group has a score-range of 86 to 112.

In the Experimental Group, Group III has the greatest score-range. It represents 28% of the class. The maximum and minimum test scores are achieved by its subjects. In the second test there is an improvement. It is rather unusual that only two per cent of the Controlled Group belongs in this section.

The most restricted subjects according to the socio-economic levels are those in Group V. It is a section which possesses 15% of the Experimental Group, and 11% of the Controlled Group. The Experimental Group's score-range is from 95 to 115 in the first test, and from 98 to 118 in the second test. The Controlled Group's score-range is from 68 to 112 on both tests.

From all of this data, the following conclusions may be drawn:

- (1) The higher socio-economic levels are generally conducive to the expression of kindness in the average students as a group but not individually.
- (2) The lower socio-economic levels generally tend to limit the child's social experience. This condition will retard, usually, the child's social knowledge, which fosters the expression of kindness.
- (3) There is a general tendency in the groups that, with the increase of chronological age, there is an increase in the expression of kindness.
- (4) Those in the upper kindness score-range generally progress and improve at a definite rate in the expression of kindness over a period of time.
- (5) Those in the lower score-range give evidence in their social activities in school of lacking those knowledges which lead to the expression of kindness in the ordinary social procedure.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

I. A Summary of the Study

1. The Purpose: The purpose of the present study is to determine the extent to which children's attitudes toward kindness in 4-B can be improved. It tries to obtain from children an expression of attitude in regard to the willingness to be kind in specific social situations.

It does not pretend to measure attitude with the exactness of the mathematician, but strives to measure expressed attitude without defining to what degree the latter resembles the former.

2. The Procedure: The necessary material for the measurement of such expressed attitudes, consists of the normal activities of the day-by-day living of the child. To ascertain the activities of specific situations, the opinions of experienced adults and teachers have been taken into consideration.

From these suggestions, various situations of the following types have been devised:

1. Home relationships
2. School activities
3. Leisure activities
4. Social activities
5. Economic situations

6. Civic situations

7. Appreciation of the beautiful

The material which forms the basis of the measuring instrument, a Situations-Test of 25 items, has been supplemented by selected situations from:

1. The children's oral compositions,
2. Stories of heroes and heroines whom the children admire,
3. Material in books, magazines, and articles.
4. Written compositions of children,
5. Assembly work which encourages audience participation, and
6. School club activities.

Each item presents a social situation which the average normal child meets in his daily activities, and it offers five possible reactions. These five possible reactions indicate various degrees of kindness which possess score-values from one to five.

The tests were distributed to a Controlled Group and an Experimental Group. The two groups checked the twenty-five items during one period. The test was given again at the end of twelve weeks to both groups. Although the Controlled Group received no specific instructions in the trait of kindness, the Experimental Group devoted twelve weeks to "kindness."

II. Findings

Conclusions are based upon the data of the study.

1. All children are aware to some degree that kindness is an essential quality in every worthy citizen. All subjects rise above the score of 63. The greater number of the Experimental Group cluster around the median score

100 in the first administration of the test. The second test produces a median score of 105. Insofar as medians are an index of their expressed attitudes, this higher median indicates that children recognize the importance of kindness.

2. The Character Club is a direct means of improving, developing, and strengthening the child's capacity to meet and face the realities of social requirements insofar as his expressed attitudes are a true indication of this capacity. The Character Club is an active process of improving the child's expressed attitudes to meet the group's need. The increase in the group median score from 100 to 105 gives evidence of the improvement.

3. More homogeneity exists in the older group. When the Experimental and Controlled Groups are compared, those pupils whose chronological age is 9.9 or over present homogeneous grouping. It is apparent that the younger group tends to base its decisions on social interests rather than on experience or on principle.

4. The Character Club is a procedure for improving children's expressed attitudes. This is indicated with the advance in chronological age, which produces, with slight exception, a steady increase in the median age-score.

5. The boys of the Experimental Group show a small but appreciable superiority to the girls in their expressed attitudes. This is indicated by a difference of three points in the group median score of the second test.

6. The good example which is portrayed in the stories which are read to the children shows a somewhat appreciable influence on the subjects in their expressed attitudes. The increase in the group median score is five

points.

7. A slight superiority in their expressed attitudes is exhibited by subjects whose parents belong to the highly trained or skilled groups. One must remember, however, that the smallness of numbers makes any comparisons inconclusive.

8. An I.Q. score of 110 or above represents a slight superiority in the expressed attitudes. In general those who possess the highest I.Q. scores are the subjects who have high scores in the frequency distributions.

9. While, for reasons given, it is not deemed a requisite that the reliability of the measuring instrument be determined, yet it is of importance to discover here that, by use of the Spearman Rank Difference Method, a correlation between the original test and a re-test of 44 subjects in the Controlled Group is found to be .998.

III. Limitations of the Study

Since this is practically a pioneer study in its particular phase of the field of the measurement of personality, there are probably some defects which have not been apprehended by the writer, who is, however, aware of others. Among the latter, there are the following ones:

1. The various items in the Questionnaire vary in importance as indices of kindness.
2. The reactions which claim the highest score-value in some situations require less kindness than the corresponding reactions in other situations. The research of Odell (145) shows, however, that there is little to be gained by weighting.

3. The Questionnaire offers a challenge to the subject's will; the element of fatigue may influence the checking of the last items.
4. The smallness of certain groups, such as that of the middle child, makes deductions with reference to these groups tentative.

IV. Suggestions for Further Studies

1. A similar study might be made entitled: "Determining the Extent to Which Students' Attitudes toward Kindness in 9-B can be Improved." The subjects would be boys and girls.
2. A distinct and interesting possibility would be to compare the boys' expressed attitude toward kindness in 4-B and 5-B, with the girls' in the same grades.
3. Using the same test, studies could be made with:
 - a. The middle child of a family
 - b. The eldest child of a family
 - c. The only child
 - d. The youngest child, and
 - e. The second child in a family
4. An analysis of the data which have been secured in the present study offers possibility for comparison of the number of subjects in the various categories. The present writer believes that this might yield useful information for improving a child's attitude toward kindness.
5. Further studies in this field may suggest that it is necessary to lengthen the Questionnaire. To ascertain the exact need, it is

necessary to study the highest and the lowest scores. A comparison of this type is a minor study in itself.

V. Comparison of Results with the Findings of Others

The final step in the solution of the problem is the comparing of the results which have been obtained with the findings of those who have solved problems which are similar. The problem in the present research is the child's attitude toward kindness.

Although there is no intensive work reported on kindness, this trait has been viewed in a general way in other studies of children's moral concepts.

Chapter II, which is called "A Survey of the Literature of the Field," refers to a number of these studies. The purpose of this concluding section is to compare the results of this study with the findings of some of the earlier investigators.

The most elaborate and valuable study of moral concepts, by Hartshorne, May, and their collaborators, upholds the conclusion: "The results seem to point directly to the home as the outstanding source of the knowledge of right and wrong Within the home, the mother's influence is considerably greater than that of the father." (42:65)

The present study has verified these general findings with reference to kindness.

Among the many factors which tend to influence the child's attitude toward kindness, the paramount one is the home. This is evident from the child's reactions to each situation-item. The reactions offer indications of the home atmosphere and the influence of the mother on the child's atti-

tude toward kindness is direct and explicit.

The McGrath investigation (59), which employs the direct technique and advocates the use of stories for knowledge of moral principles, stresses the fact that the ideal of kindness to another is very important from the child's point of view. That finding is upheld by the present research.

The present study reveals that the Character Club, a direct approach in the development of the trait of kindness, permits the child to express his reactions on the various situation-items as they are presented to him. Moreover, the self-direction and pupil initiative which are advanced through the asking and answering of questions of one another, together with the original comments of the students in the Character Club, invite the child to give expression to what is his own personal reaction to the situation.

Therefore, may we not rightly claim that an answer which is furnished by the child under such conditions is a true index to the child's natural reaction to a given situation?

The aim of this study has been to study the extent to which children's attitudes toward kindness in 4-B can be improved. This having been done, however, incompletely, the task of developing means to supply that need is left to others.

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APPENDIX

TABLE XXII

Original and Re-Test Scores Upon Which the Correlation
of .998 is Found for the Controlled Group
According to the Spearman Rank
Difference Method

O	R	O	R	O	R	O	R
112	112	116	116	109	109	112	112
108	109	98	98	79	79	66	66
113	114	86	88	94	94	113	113
118	118	98	100	116	116	98	100
113	113	110	112	109	107	114	114
107	108	105	105	107	108	95	97
112	112	101	103	107	105	110	110
105	104	93	93	107	107	97	97
98	98	115	115	110	110	100	98
69	69	116	116	108	108	83	83
100	100	110	110	105	105	109	107

TABLE XXIII

The I.Q.'s and the Original Scores of the Controlled
Group Upon Which the Correlation of .811 is Found
According to the Spearman Rank Difference Method

666

I.Q.	O	I.Q.	O	I.Q.	O	I.Q.	O
124	116	115	115	106	107	98	86
123	112	114	108	106	94	96	97
122	116	114	118	106	105	95	98
122	109	114	113	104	98	95	110
122	112	113	116	104	107	92	105
122	113	112	110	103	110	92	98
121	114	111	113	103	108	89	103
119	107	111	109	101	69	89	93
118	97	110	107	101	100	82	79
117	100	108	110	100	98	80	83
116	108	107	112	99	105	67	66

In this test each child is to read the story and check off what he considers the most kind way to act.

My brother and I went to the picnic. I won two boxes of candy. If I were kind, I would:

- ☐ show the candy to my friends.
- ☐ eat one box of candy and save the second box for next week.
- ☐ be very happy.
- ☐ give my brother a box of candy.
- ☒ share all my candy with my brother.

In this story the answer you check tells that you consider that is the most kind way to act.

TEST ON KINDNESS

NAME																													
Last										First																			
BOY OR GIRL										GRADE										TEACHER									
DATE												SCHOOL																	
Year										Month										Day									
DATE OF BIRTH												CITY																	
Year										Month										Day									

TEST NUMBER

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25

Time: 30 minutes for Test.

1. My father bought me a drawing set for my birthday. My little brother is very fond of drawing. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 let my little brother use the drawing set first.
- 5 show my brother how to use the set.
- 3 jump with joy when my father gave me the set.
- 2 put my set away and use it when my brother is asleep.
- 1 hide my set so my brother cannot find it.

2. A new boy is a member of my class. At recess I see him standing alone. If I were kind, I would:

- 5 introduce him to my friends.
- 4 take him around and show him the playground.
- 3 say "Hello" to him.
- 1 tease him.
- 2 pass him by and do nothing kind for him.

3. The boy next door is lame. He leans on a cane when he walks. He earns his living by delivering groceries because he must work out-of-doors. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 ask my mother to buy all her groceries at the store where he works.
- 3 speak kindly to the boy when I meet him.
- 2 carry my groceries home.
- 5 on every opportunity try to increase the business of the grocer who is kind to him.
- 1 complain about the delivery service.

4. My grandfather and I went to the Field Museum. I was interested in seeing cases which were devoted to Indian Life. My grandfather was interested in the Eskimo. If I were kind I would:

- 4 ask the Field Museum guard where the Eskimo section was.
- 5 try to do everything that would please my grandfather.
- 3 be happy to go with my grandfather.
- 1 want to go to the boat race.
- 2 run to the cases which held the Indian bows and arrows.

5. My little brother likes to run in the house. This disturbs my grandmother who likes to knit. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 tell my little brother a quiet interesting story.
- 5 bring my little brother out in the yard and play with him.
- 3 have him color pictures when my grandmother is knitting.
- 1 tell my father to punish my little brother for disturbing my grandmother.
- 2 scold my little brother.

6. My cousin spilt ink on the map which I was making to send to the Newspaper Airplane contest. My cousin asked me to forgive him for spoiling the map. If I were kind, I would:

- 1 make life disagreeable for my cousin at home.
- 2 feel abused and start to cry.
- 4 draw another map.
- 3 make my cousin do something for me to repay me for the time spent in making the map.
- 5 ask my cousin to join with me in drawing another map for the contest.

7. Our neighbor has a lovely lawn. The playground is on the corner next to the neighbor's lawn. If I were kind, I would:

- 5 help my neighbor keep the lawn neat.
- 2 take a short-cut through the lawn to the playground.
- 4 plant grass seed around our home.
- 3 go after my ball when it fell on the neighbor's lawn.
- 1 take my dog for a walk and let the dog walk on the neighbor's lawn.

8. My brother likes to go hiking in the Woods on Sunday afternoons. He asked me to go with him. If I were kind, I would:

- 2 remind him of the poison ivy in the Woods.
- 1 plan to go to the park.
- 3 quietly listen to him.
- 5 enter willingly into his plans.
- 4 prepare a nice lunch basket for my brother.

9. My grandmother took me to the Bird and Pet Shop to help her select a puppy for my little brother's birthday. If I were kind, I would:

- 1 want my grandmother to buy me a puppy also.
- 2 look at the puppies and pick out the one I like.
- 5 pick out the puppy I think my brother would like.
- 4 be delighted to make my brother happy.
- 3 be glad my grandmother asked me to go with her.

10. My sister belong to a Stamp Club. This Club is preparing an exhibit of stamps. In the club, there are children who find it rather difficult to secure stamps. If I were kind, I would:

- 1 keep all my stamps.
- 2 sell all my old stamps to a great stamp collector.
- 3 enjoy looking at the different colored stamps in the exhibit.
- 4 try to think up new ideas to make the stamp exhibit perfect.
- 5 make interesting posters to help everyone in the stamp exhibit.

11. My brother, and sister went with me to Lincoln Park. At the Park my brother started kicking me in the foot, in a playful manner. If I were kind, I would:

- 1 kick my brother back.
- 2 leave the park and go home.
- 4 not notice my brother's unkind act.
- 5 offer to play a running game with my brother and sister.
- 3 give my brother and sister the cake which my mother gave me to eat at the park.

12. My classmate who was not kind to me during recess period wants to borrow one of my books. Tom Sawyer is the book he is very fond of reading. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 loan him the book over night.
- 2 tell him to get the book at the library.
- 1 refuse to loan him the book.
- 3 listen politely to his request.
- 5 loan him the book and tell him that I am happy to be of service to him.

13. My brother is making a house for our dog. He really needs some-one to help him. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 offer to paint the dog house.
- 5 bring the materials to my brother as he works at the dog house.
- 3 watch my brother work.
- 1 say that the dog house ruins the yard.
- 2 fly my kite in the yard.

14. My classmate was elected to sing the class song at the Singing Assembly Program. There are four of us who are rated better singers than she is. If I were kind, I would:

- 1 stay home that day from school.
- 5 help my classmate all I could with the song outside of school.
- 4 enjoy listening to the Singing Assembly.
- 3 work at my singing lessons every day.
- 2 believe that the class should not have elected her.

15. My father is working a cross-word puzzle in the daily paper. He is very interested in all cross-word puzzles. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 become interested in what interests my father.
- 2 ask my father to help me with my home-work.
- 5 be on the watch for cross-word puzzles in all papers and magazines.
- 3 watch my father work cross-word puzzles.
- 1 forget to bring home the newspaper which contains cross-word puzzles.

16. My school chum ate too much candy at my birthday party. She is home from school for two days. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 bring her some books to read.
- 3 tell her not to eat candy any more.
- 5 help her with the work she missed at school.
- 1 not feel sorry for her because she made herself ill.
- 2 never offer her candy again.

17. My little brother and sister want me to build bird houses for the wrens. I like robins. If I were kind, I would:

- 2 make a bench for the lawn for the summer.
- 1 chase away all the wrens I saw in the yard.
- 3 agree with my little brother and sister
- 5 build bird houses for the wrens.
- 4 show my little brother and sister the wren bird houses I made to surprise them.

18. My chum won first honors in the Violin Contest by working very hard. He has been awarded a trip to Europe by the musicians of the Musical Club. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 congratulate my chum.
- 3 buy him a musical book as a gift of friendship.
- 2 wonder if the contest was fair.
- 1 say that others could play better than he could.
- 5 have a group of friends gather to wish him great success on his journey.

19. My grandfather has a chicken farm in the country. He wrote a letter to my mother asking for my help during the summer vacation. If I were kind, I would:

- 4 be delighted to go.
- 2 go to summer school.
- 1 want to go to the Boy's summer camp.

- 5 5 start preparing myself to be of great help to my grandfather during my stay on the chicken farm in the summer time.
- 3 3 read my grandfather's letter.

20. My brother and I earned some extra money exercising the neighbors dogs. My brother will be a graduate next month. If I were kind, I would:

- 1 1 buy myself a new suit to go to my brother's graduation exercises.
- 2 2 wish I were a graduate.
- 5 5 buy my brother a graduation gift with my share of the money.
- 4 4 give my share of the money to my mother who would use it as she saw fit.
- 3 3 be very happy because my brother is happy.

21. My aunt who is very kind sent my little sister a beautiful doll for her birthday. My little sister breaks her doll and is very sad. If I were kind, I would:

- 5 5 spend some time in trying to mend my sister's doll.
- 3 3 tell my sister that I would save my weekly allowance and buy her another doll.
- 1 1 tell my mother that my little sister broke her doll.
- 2 2 tell my sister that she had other toys to play with in the house.
- 4 4 help to cheer my sister and make her a rag doll.

22. The boy who sits across from me in school is not very strong. He is unable to come to school in December. His mother invites the classmates to come on Saturday and visit him. If I were kind, I would:

- 3 3 thank his mother for the invitation.
- 2 2 send my brother to visit him while I went to the library.
- 1 1 stay home and do my home work.
- 5 5 visit him every Saturday and read stories to him.
- 4 4 make interesting story booklets for him and get others to do it.

23. My classmate forgot to bring his pencil to school. I have several extra pencils. If I were kind, I would:

- 2 2 feel sorry for him.
- 4 4 offer my classmate one of my pencils.
- 5 5 place two of my pencils on the desk without speaking.
- 1 1 refuse to loan him a pencil.
- 3 3 tell him to leave extra pencils in his desk.

24. My brother and I are playing in the back yard. My friend calls us to go with him and find birds nests. If we were kind, we would:

- 3 3 keep on playing in the yard.
- 5 5 explain to the friend the value of birds in destroying insects.
- 4 4 refuse to go with him.
- 2 2 suggest new places to find birds' nests.
- 1 1 ask other boys to join us.

25. My boy friend who pushed me into the mud yesterday when we were coming home from school asked me to help him with a problem in long division. If I were kind, I would:

- 2 2 not speak to him.
- 1 1 push him off the sidewalk.
- 3 3 refuse to help him.
- 4 4 invite him to my home and teach him long division.
- 5 5 gladly help him with long division.